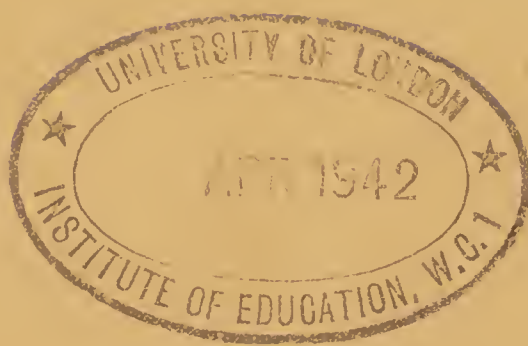


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THE NEW ERA

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January to December, 1940

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Number

S. H. Cracknell, M.Sc., Ph.D.

Headmaster, Dalmain Road London
County Council Junior Mixed School

A PARROT can be taught to talk but not to converse. So many a child learns to juggle with figures, to 'work' sums, but has not the slightest comprehension of the significance of these same figures or of the processes applied to them.

Small wonder that Dr. Dillon in the June issue of *The New Era* has to lament the loss of valuable time while to her adult students is revealed the meaning of the elementary work in which, while achieving skill in computation, they had been given no enlightenment as to 'what it was all about'.

It seems incomprehensible that a pupil should pass completely through the successive stages of the school course and emerge unsullied by any vestige of real understanding of the foundations of mathematical thinking. It is not merely the outside critic who is aware of this lamentable condition of affairs, but many who are actively engaged in the work are equally conscious of the soundness of the strictures made.

As in the case of all failure in normal children it is well to seek for the psychological explanation. But in such a search in relation to school subjects it is essential to remember that there are two relevant factors—the child and the teacher. Both of these operate within an atmosphere, usually vitiated by the poison gases emanating from some form of qualifying or competitive examination acting as the open door to further education. In most cases then, neither teacher nor child has freedom. For the child there is no opportunity to browse

and so to understand thoroughly; for the teacher the watchword is 'forge ahead'. Small wonder that as an immediate consequence a superficial acquaintance with mere computation is regarded as of greater import than the comprehension which later, in the distant and therefore somewhat irrelevant future, will issue in understanding and competence. A child's ability to manipulate figures is but a slight criterion of his understanding of the processes underlying that manipulation.

What is the situation facing a child commencing his number work? This question can best be answered by the study of one of the standard text-books in the History of Mathematics, a task which every teacher should attempt. It is unnecessary to go deeply into the matter for the slightest acquaintance with the content of such a work will serve to demonstrate one fact, namely the enormous difficulty experienced by the race in learning to count and to take the further step from counting to grouping. It may or may not be true that biologically the individual 'climbs up his own genealogical tree' but it is surely unreasonable to expect a child of six years of age to grasp with speedy understanding the significance of these two processes which after groping in darkness for thousands of years the race discovered but yesterday. It was the realization of the possibility and usefulness of grouping which made the development of number a practical proposition. As Professor Spearman puts it:

'The whole of Arithmetic seems to be based upon the little word "and"'. (Creative Mind.)

This is correct, for there are but four arithmetical processes—addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division—and each of these is dependent upon grouping. This process may take the form either of integration or of disintegration and the material so treated may be made from or made into regular or irregular groups. Thus we get this scheme :

PROCESS	GROUPS WHICH ARE	
INTEGRATION FROM	(A) Irregular	(B) Regular
DISINTEGRATION INTO	(A) Irregular	(B) Regular

It is clear from this table that integration (addition) may be carried out with groups of unequal (irregular) or of equal (regular) size and thus we have the two processes commonly called addition and multiplication, both being examples of integration.

Similarly, the disintegration of a whole into its constituents may result in producing parts which are irregular or regular, giving the processes which we usually call respectively subtraction and division.

A moment's thought will make it clear that multiplication and division are but special cases of the processes of addition and subtraction which, in their turn, are merely the placing together (integration) or the separation (disintegration) of groups.

It surely follows that it is of vital importance that the child commencing the study of number should grasp once and for all the fact that there are two fundamental activities called forth and only two, the placing together or the taking apart of groups, these groups being either regular or irregular in size. Once a child has grasped and thoroughly absorbed this fact there will be no need to wonder whether later on he will be able to decide whether in a particular setting the process called for is addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division. Difficulty is so often experienced in this very matter entirely because children are taught to carry out the processes with *figures* before they have thoroughly and exhaustively investigated them with *things*. Infant schools are so anxious to get on to written exercises ; Junior schools are so insistent that children being promoted from

the Infants' Department should be able to 'work' certain specified types of sum that there is a strong tendency to shorten the time given to the preliminary and fundamental practical investigation upon which any real comprehension of arithmetical work *must* be based.

This, then, is the first essential—abundant and varied practical work, with a resolute refusal to be sidetracked into precocious indulgence in written exercises.

It may perhaps be mentioned that similar preparation is demanded for the later work in length, weight, time, etc., but that is not our immediate concern.

The second obstacle which causes great trouble to many children is that encountered when the number forms themselves are learnt. Just as the race lived through most of its history before it hit upon the expedient of writing 3 for \dots and 5 for \therefore so we should realize that there is a corresponding difficulty facing a child when he first meets examples such as $3 + 4$ or 3×5 . The connection between these symbols and the groups of objects which they signify is by no means self-evident, and to many children it remains most obscure. As a consequence, their number work never rises beyond a mechanical juggling with figures in which, while the correct answers may be reached, the results are completely devoid of significance. Thus arises the need for special care that the transition stage through which the child passes from $\boxed{::}$ to $\boxed{::4}$ and thence to $\boxed{4}$ should be leisurely and that no room should be left for doubt as to whether the symbol $\boxed{4}$ does result in visualizing $\boxed{::}$. In many children this transition is 'scamped' with the result that 4 stands for a word 'four' and is not referred to a group of a certain composition. Arithmetic as a consequence becomes meaningless. Therefore 'hurry slowly'.

Considerations of space prevent more than passing reference to such common sources of weakness as inadequate analysis of simple numbers, lack of appreciation of place value when tens and units are written together. Both troubles can be overcome by the employment of suitable apparatus over the necessary period of time.

It would perhaps be well to indicate those defects which appear to contribute most towards the later failure of children who have successfully negotiated the Infants' School work.

Writing as a teacher and for teachers I would suggest that we consider only those blemishes for which we ourselves are responsible, that is, those which are due to some weakness in our own work.

First, and of greatest importance, there is our attitude to the children. Are we not hypercritical? A child makes errors in his work and we 'carry on' in great form about his carelessness and ignorance. Do we ever pause to ask ourselves two questions:

(1) Did I, when I was his age, make similar 'stupid' mistakes?

(2) If I did not, why was it?

If the answer to the first question is affirmative our criticism of the child bears the stamp of hypocrisy. We are damaging him by impressing the feeling that he is not so good as a boy can really be expected to be. He is on the way to losing self-confidence and that way lies failure.

May be the answer to the first question is also favourable. I did not make such errors. Now why was that? In all probability we, as potential teachers, were supernormal children! We either did obtain or could have obtained scholarships. That is why we did not make such 'foolish' errors, if indeed such be the case. And we are scarcely justified in criticising children of lower grade mentality for their failure to reach similar success. *True, a child of superior intelligence may consistently fall into error, and the treatment meted out will depend upon our decision as to the reason for such unsatisfactory work.

In any case I would suggest that we who teach are frequently, by our unmerited or unduly severe criticisms, responsible for many children giving up hope of achieving mastery in their arithmetical work.

Just as our attitude to the children is so often wrong, so too frequently is our attitude to the work itself. How many teachers really consider an arithmetic lesson worth preparing? History—geography—science—yes, these need preparation, but arithmetic—well, we will work the next set of examples!

This attitude is all very well if the text-book used happens to be based upon scientific principles but very few are. Most consist of numerous examples which serve a most beneficial purpose *when the work has been mastered*, but fail in one essential requirement. The authors of these courses in most cases fail to take into account the enormous amount of experimental work which has been carried out bearing upon the relative difficulty of the number combinations. If this attitude is adopted it of necessity follows that progress cannot be by correctly graded steps. And herein lies the cause of most failure in the number work in the Junior School. For successful teaching it is essential that the work shall be correctly graded from step to step. The practice, followed by many teachers, of putting before the class a number of examples made up on the spur of the moment fails in this most indispensable feature. The exercises are not graded and consequently the order in which they are worked bears no relationship whatever to the order of actual difficulty. Few of us indeed have not at some time or another found ourselves responsible for 'tripping up' the whole of a class by just such a sum, made up without previous consideration.

It is therefore essential that both our own work and the text-books we use should take account of this fact, experimentally demonstrated, that the number combinations are of very unequal difficulty. Does the text-book we use indicate that the author was aware of this fact or does he seem to be of the opinion that $4 + 2$; $2 + 4$; and $5 + 3$ are addition processes of equal difficulty? Does he imagine that in multiplication the order of difficulty progresses from 2 to 9? Do we fall into this same error? May be the experimental evidence is not available to us, but we can if planning our own work make our own investigations. The easiest way to do this is to prepare a large sheet of paper containing in pairs all the numbers from 0 to 9 in all possible combinations, *e.g.*

0 3 6 8 7 9 ..

1 2 3 4 1 2 ..

etc., etc., in irregular order. The children can now be instructed to add these pairs of numbers at full speed. Some of the answers

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will be correct in every case while others will be incorrect with differing numbers of children. If a record be made of the number of cases in which any given combination is incorrectly added it is immediately apparent which, for the particular group under investigation are the most difficult and which the most easy combinations. Practice can then be given where most needed. A similar course adopted with the other processes, subtraction, multiplication and division will give most valuable information as to the particular spots needing most attention. This procedure has the special advantages that it enables an alert teacher to plan work specially needed in a particular group.

A little ingenuity will enable the more difficult combinations to be practised even when more complicated examples are set and both the text-book and the teacher's own work should give evidence that a serious effort has been made to plan this.

This preliminary step having been taken, it is essential that further work should be arranged so that every new process receives due attention. In simple addition, for example, the following are some possible variations :

- (a) No 'carrying' figures from total to total.
- (b) Carrying 1.
- (c) Carrying 2, 3, 4, 5, . . . 9.
- (d) Total a number such as 20, 30, 40, needing care with 0.
- (e) Adding lines of irregular length, *e.g.*

$$\begin{array}{r} 35 \\ 269 \\ 8 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

A teacher (and a text-book) should show evidence that such difficulties have been foreseen and that plans have been laid for suitable practice.

Similar work should be catered for in the other rules whether simple or 'compound'. Haphazard examples are worse than useless.

The purpose of this brief paper has not been to write a text-book of arithmetical method but to emphasize an attitude which must be taken if the teaching of number is to be made reasonably efficient. We must be prepared to plan not only our scheme as a whole but the steps within each gradation within that scheme. In the early stages the teacher should work in advance every sum which later will be given to the class so that he can be certain that no unexpected difficulties are lurking therein and each step taken must lead to another achievement from which a further step forward can be taken. We teachers must adopt this attitude of careful analysis of our material and consequent planning for the necessary abilities to be developed. Nothing has been said of practical work or of the approach to the solution of problems but the same attitude will be needed.

Last week a boy aged 9 applied for admission to my department. He was given a test in simple multiplication ranging from such examples as

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (a) & 345 & \text{to } (b) \ 528 \\ & \times 7 & \times 36 \\ & \hline & & \hline \end{array}$$

He said he could not do sums like (a) as he had never been taught. He couldn't. But he said he could do those like (b). He could.

Social Adaptation

M. Schmideberg

SEVERE parents become angry, friendly parents thoughtful, if a child develops tempers or begins to steal. Different as their reactions are, they have this in common, that they take good behaviour for granted and begin to see a problem only if the child becomes troublesome. That even enlightened

people are not exempt from this general attitude on the part of adults is shown by the fact that psychologists usually set out to answer the question, 'Why does a child steal?' or 'Why does he react to frustration with tempers?' whilst the much more remarkable fact that many children do not do these things

(or at least not most of the time) passes without proper appreciation.

It is characteristic of our civilization that we do not gratify our natural impulses of eating, sleeping, excreting, and even, from a certain age, of running about, when we feel the need for them but only at certain appointed times. Although this seems to have become 'second nature' to us, the fact that there are only a few among us who do not suffer from some disturbance of these functions shews what a tremendous effort this adaptation must have involved; it is small wonder that children sometimes protest with rages against having these 'habits' forced on them. Children are expected to curb their primitive instincts, to renounce their 'bad habits', their inquisitiveness, pugnacity, rebelliousness, and greed—in fact, almost all their natural reactions; they are expected to conform not only in their behaviour but in thought and feeling as well. Having succeeded in adapting themselves to certain codes of conduct, children are further asked to tolerate without protest deviations from these codes which operate to their disfavour. It is difficult for adults to realize what a renunciation it implies for a small child to wait patiently without food until it is time for lunch. But if lunch is late he is expected to feel no resentment at the delay. It is not easy for a child to learn that he must refrain from damaging other people's property; but if his younger brother destroys his own, he is supposed not to make a fuss.

Even the adult who is most sympathetic towards children remains an adult at heart and feels that children, whether charming or pathetic, are a nuisance if they do not behave properly. Because of our bias we prefer to be more aware of what we do for the child than of the demands we make on him and the difficulties we expect him to put up with. When I first started work as a psychoanalyst, I was impressed by the frequency of neuroses; since I have learned to pay more attention to the conditions under which neuroses develop, I have wondered that neurotic difficulties are not more common still. We tend to gloss over the drawbacks of the environment if they are not too striking and remain unaware of the many insincerities and inconsistencies, the

absurd demands made and wounds inflicted by many perfectly nice and human parents. Only when we have come to realize the heavy odds against which, under normal or even favourable conditions, adaptation is achieved shall we appreciate fully how adaptable human nature really is.

What then, are the forces which make a child social? Fear, though it produces immediate and impressive results, is not likely to promote genuine social adaptation. The paramount factor involved is love for the parents and an identification with loving and admired parents. The child wishes to be like the people he admires. A little girl wanted to drink from her toy pail, then hesitated, and asked me, 'Do you think Princess Elizabeth would do this?' Identification is mainly an unconscious mechanism not a conscious form, of imitation. In the course of his development the child gradually appropriates the standards of his parents and others to such a degree that they become his own and form the nucleus of what we call 'conscience'. The force of example is well known. But it is not the deliberately staged example which often contrasts with the general attitude and behaviour of the parent, but this attitude and behaviour itself that influences the child. As an incentive to the child to give up sucking his thumb the fact that the grown-ups do not suck theirs is more important than any number of deliberate attempts to wean him from the habit. Staged examples of kindness to poor children or admonitions to be kind to 'your nice little brother' are not likely to be very effective if they come from a parent who is not kind to the child himself. A modification of the child's primitive hate and fears is effected mainly owing to the fact that the parents do not retaliate. (Thus, punishments are more likely to impede than to promote genuine adaptation.) A little girl of two and a half years busied herself in the analysis with pouring water on me and the carpet, thus wetting herself. I explained to her that she did so because she was angry with me and proceeded to dry her. Suddenly her mood changed and she started to clean up, saying, 'I make it nice and clean for you'.

It is usually assumed that the child learns to

adapt himself socially by mixing with other children. This is certainly the case, but he is already very much influenced in his attitude to other children by his relation to his parents. Thus he may bully another boy, not because he is jealous of him but because he can express in this way some of his hostility towards his father which he dare not show openly; he may strike another child because his mother has spanked him or he may be quarrelsome as a reaction to the quarrels he has witnessed between his parents. In being kind to a younger child he may be treating him as he has been treated by his mother, thus recapturing some of the happiness he experienced in babyhood.

There is no parent who does not hurt or frustrate his child, infringe his own rules and standards, suffer from caprices or moods or tell occasional lies. I do not believe, as some people do, that parents should set themselves excessively high standards of sincerity, consistency, or equanimity. Such attempts to reach perfection usually impose too great a strain on the parents and are likely to increase their unconscious hostility against the child, which, in the long run, is sure to do more damage than the original faults. Moreover, these efforts to be perfect are likely to create an unnatural and fundamentally insincere atmosphere between parents and children. Most children put up with a surprising degree of inconsistency and unfairness without undue harm, a fact which we do not generally realize sufficiently because we tend to underestimate the shortcomings of the average parents. Observers sometimes fall into the pitfall of accepting the parents' estimate of themselves at its face value and believing their sincere protestations that they make excellent parents. Thus much that passes as an excessive reaction on the child's part to trifles may be shown to be a natural reaction to a stimulus which has acted as the last straw or a belated reaction to some distressing experience. Children can tolerate their parents' shortcomings to a reasonable extent and forgive them their faults if they themselves have shown forbearance towards childhood misdemeanours. But children on whom unduly high standards have been imposed, whose lapses have not been

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overlooked, who can at best expect justice but not kindness, whose security has been based on rules or abstract principles, instead of genuine affection, are unable to dispense with these guarantees in later life. They are likely to become unforgiving sticklers for right or equally intolerant rebels.

Education succeeds in moulding the child only because the intensity of the original primitive asocial instincts has been diminished through the operation of unconscious mechanisms. Psycho-analysis has studied these modifications in detail. Here I shall mention only three mechanisms: repression, sublimation and reaction-formation. Repression is a means of inhibiting and cutting off from consciousness the primitive instincts. It is a mechanism which is present to some extent in every individual and plays an important part in preserving mental equilibrium, but if it is carried too far socially, useful instinctual forces may be lost together with the undesirable ones, and the individual becomes warped. A further danger of this mechanism is that repressed impulses may unexpectedly break through the barrier of repression; this is the cause of many delinquent or neurotic reactions. Sublimation, the substitution of social aims for anti-social ones is perhaps the most important factor in adaptation: the individual instead of yielding to his homicidal or destructive impulses may find a sublimatory outlet for them in manual labour, sport, or intellectual activities. In reaction-formation the instinctual aim is converted into its opposite; a man will feel pity instead of pleasure at the suffering of others, disgust instead of pleasure in dirt. Thus, because the child 'sublimates' his greed for food partly into a 'thirst for knowledge', 'represses' some of his greed and resentment, develops the 'reaction-formation' of patience to his original impatience and 'overcompensates' his wish to have all food for himself by a readiness to share it with others, it is possible to induce him to wait patiently for his lunch. Education influences these unconscious mechanisms up to a point. But it cannot do so directly nor does it lie in our power to ensure that any particular mechanism shall be influenced or that our efforts shall produce a proportionate effect.

What is intended to encourage sublimation may only result in increased repression; what is designed to favour the process of repression may only succeed in intensifying hatred. Perhaps it is fortunate that we do not have the power to select and accurately regulate these mechanisms, thus producing children 'made to measure'. In any case, instinct can only be modified in these ways to a limited extent; a reasonable amount of direct gratification is essential for mental stability. Moreover, the elimination of certain impulses from consciousness does not mean that the problem has been solved. On the contrary, unconscious hate may prove much more dangerous than the conscious variety.

Disturbances in adaptation have many causes. Thus, delinquency is not simply due to an absence of moral drives but may, for instance, result from the fact that an individual is unable to put considerations of the future before his immediate needs because he has lost faith in the future, that he has an excessive need for immediate satisfaction because he feels desperate and unhappy and is denied—because of his inhibitions—the comfort of phantasy life that enables others to endure frustration. Unconscious fears of being attacked may cause extreme aggressiveness because attack is felt to be the best defence.¹ Fear of starvation may cause greed or stealing. The need to escape from a reality that causes excessive anxiety or conflict may give rise to lying; the fear of not being able to control envy and hate may be a factor in thieving. Generally speaking, unconscious fear and hate are the most frequent causes of maladaptation. But much that passes for faulty social adaptation is a neurotic symptom. Thus, fussing over meals need not signify an attempt to defy one's parents, but may be the expression of a neurotic disturbance. Thus, the child may be unable to eat tomato soup because it reminds him of blood, or he may feel so guilty over his unconscious greed or impulses to bite, that he finds it difficult to eat at all.

I have tried to show that social adaptation is a slow and laborious process achieved against heavy odds and subject to manifold disturb-

¹ Cf. my paper: 'The Psychoanalytic treatment of social children', this Journal, March 1933.

ances. We should appreciate what the child achieves and not be too hard on him if he sometimes fails. We should show some of the patience we demand from him and not impose standards that are too severe or expect the process of adaptation to proceed quickly. Often a higher degree of unselfishness is expected from the child than from the adult. The latter, who would call in the police to protect him against burglars, expects the child not to protest if children visiting the house damage his toys ; although he never dreams of distributing his money, he expects the child to share the treasured box of sweets given him for his birthday. Children have the right to

their bad moods as much as grown-ups and to be 'difficult' when they are upset or anxious, or resentful if hurt.

But, if in spite of kind treatment and reasonable forbearance, the child is unable to adapt himself, the cause of his difficulties should be investigated. These may be due to many factors and must be dealt with accordingly. They should not be suppressed or overridden by fear or guilt. No sensible driver would force the acceleration if his car is not running smoothly. He will try to find out what is wrong and if necessary take the car to a good garage. Children should be given as much consideration as motor cars.

Ten Years of Prison Education at San Quentin

H. A. Shuder

**Director of Education,
San Quentin Prison, California, U.S.A.**

CALIFORNIA State Prison at San Quentin is the largest prison in the United States. The population at the present time is 5,654. The men who make up this population come from all parts of the United States : approximately a third from California, a third from the Middle Western States, and another third from all sections of the world. The crimes charged against this group of men cover the entire range of penology. The average period of incarceration is approximately three years, with another eighteen months to be spent on parole. Ninety-seven per cent. of the men incarcerated are released sooner or later from the institution. The men are for the most part young men. The peak of the age curve is 21-22-23 years. The average age for the entire population on entry is thirty years and three months.

The problem of such an institution as San Quentin is that of getting the men ready to go home. The old and traditional ideas of penology are changing, and must change in keeping with this objective. The days when punishment was relied upon as the sole deterrent to crime have passed, or are passing. We have learned in the field of psychology that punishment is

much less important for a delinquent than the development of a normal interest. The first problem that presents itself with regard to this assemblage of men, especially the young men, is the problem of locating or developing an interest around which they may reorganize their living and their thinking. If such an interest can be developed or disentangled from the social network of the past, and if this interest can be promoted and secured through adequate educational preparation, and if on release, the Parole Department is far-sighted enough to see that the placement of parolees is somewhat in keeping with this training and interest, the case on the whole looks better from the standpoint of rehabilitation.

At San Quentin over the past ten years we have attempted painstakingly to study our men. We have given them intelligence tests to determine adjustment possibilities. We have also given them achievement tests so that we know something of their past educational efficiency. We have also provided emotional tests and aptitude tests. These latter are, of course, self-explanatory as to the purpose in giving them. In addition to the testing programme, which is very thorough—we believe

more so than in any other institution of its kind in the country—we are able to give the individual inmate effective advice. Our information concerning the inmate is also augmented by reports from his former school principal and teachers, employers and, of course, by the inevitable police record. As soon as the men come to the institution the programme of education is embarked upon. The tests are given in the Educational Department; the Director of Education meets the men personally and confers with them officially. Provisional school programmes are developed at the earliest possible moment, with a view to a good use of prison time, and a constructive programme of preparation for the inevitable adjustment that must be made when the prisoner is returned to his home or to society. Over half of our men are 'persuaded' or 'sold' or in any case accept the philosophy of the situation and proceed to do something that is commendable and, we believe, constructive, tending towards social and economic rehabilitation. There is another half of the population, composed of the very anti-social, or the very feeble-minded, or the traditional ne'er-do-well. These constitute the essential problem in the prison programme. Obviously such types are never quite fit to be paroled. And since they do not, or will not, improve themselves under the conditions and opportunities provided in a prison, they are always a liability whenever released. The number, unfortunately, is such that allowed to accumulate over a number of years our prisons would be overloaded with these types. Of course, all people versed in penology are urging strongly the segregation of our population types, so that those that are educatable and adaptable and co-operative can be free from the hopelessness so often displayed by the anti-social and the feeble-minded.

Once the advising has been done—and we believe that this should be the starting point of *every* programme of education, not only in our prisons, but generally in the field of education—we are at liberty to proceed to give the individual such courses of training, discipline, exploration, as his case seems to warrant, and as the man seems to desire. We are very careful not to try to over-prescribe the in-

dividual's courses. We like to use the famous selling psychology, where the buyer must be the satisfied customer. We do have compulsory education for illiterates in San Quentin, but it is only for illiterates who, too frequently, are embarrassed to attempt to go to school because of the social stigma which they imagine is attached to illiteracy.

We have set up in San Quentin quite an elaborate programme of education. We do everything from the first grade up to and including the second year of junior college. Most of the men who come to San Quentin have an eighth grade level of education according to the Stanford achievement test ratings. It is also interesting to note that these rating tests show a great variety in aptitude and interest on the part of students. We find that certain students are excellent in their arithmetic abilities and very poor in English, or *vice versa*. Our school programme must keep these individual differences in mind in planning a curriculum.

Our school day starts at 9 o'clock in the morning and concludes at 3 o'clock in the afternoon. We operate our school seven days a week, with Sunday a short day, closing at 1 o'clock. It is the system in the prison that the men are 'staggered' in their work assignments so that a certain percentage only are free to attend school at any one hour. It is generally true that our men do not attend school on 'prison time' more than one hour a day, five days per week. We have something like 225 classes meeting in the prison building for instruction purposes. Our curriculum includes the fundamentals of reading, writing, the grade school, and the high school courses, and a few advanced courses for college level cases. We would like to emphasize for our men as much as possible pre-vocational and vocational interests. The school programme carries a very nicely developed Manual Training Department. This Manual Training Department is sufficient to test out the vocational interests of students. And when the tests show aptitude and interest, many such students find it possible to carry on their vocational work in the maintenance shops here at the prison. The Business School is outstanding because of the fact that the offices of the institution are manned by the products of our Business School. Since our inmates have

on the whole an acceptable rating in intelligence, and since they are young men, there is a feeling on the part of many that a business education is probably one of the best investments to be made.

In addition to the class room programme, we operate two correspondence divisions. For the lower levels of education and intelligence, courses provide men who are still struggling with the fundamentals of English and arithmetic a chance to use their 'cell time' after the lock-up hour in serious and individual study. A great many men avail themselves of this opportunity. In a prison with a large population, which always means congestion, it is difficult to organize the work so that every individual has an adequate opportunity in the face of the overcrowding to work out his own particular educational programme. We like to urge, in view of this, that the individual develop a sense of individuality and initiative, and that he does study by himself alone in his cell. Our enrolment in this particular division is over two thousand, and the results are very commendable.

In addition to this particular lower correspondence division, we have a liaison with the University of California Department of Extension. The extension courses of the university are made available without charge to our inmates able to take such courses. We have something like a thousand men thus enrolled in the University of California Extension Department doing college work, for which college credits are possible. It is perfectly possible for a man to build up credits here at the State Prison which can be applied later by such an individual toward a degree from our colleges and universities. We believe that this fact alone is a significant one, for all of us, whether inmates or otherwise, seem to be proud of our university connections, and an interest in education acquired and developed here in the prison can be carried on later by the student through the university.

The cost to the State of California for the educational programme in San Quentin is astonishingly low. The present per capita cost for education is \$1.60 per man per year, figuring the entire population. This, of course, means that our teachers with the

exception of the Director, who trains the teachers as his larger teaching function, are inmates. There are those who say that such a set-up of inmate teachers in any school is, if not impossible, at least undesirable. San Quentin seems to have experienced the contrary, and believes that the experiment here with inmate teachers has been commendable. It is quite impossible for the average layman to understand that in a group of inmates in a prison of five thousand and more we have a great many professional men. In fact every profession is well represented in our prison population. A check of our educational status reveals the fact that we have men here with I.Q.'s of 150, and that the average I.Q. of the men of the institution is 87, which figure seems to be better than that of the average native American draftee tested during the World War. The draft average is estimated at between 89 and 91. This draft group did not have in it our bilinguals, neither did it have in it our older men. It is obvious that where the bilingual item is injected into an I.Q. average that the average I.Q. ought to be augmented by approximately 11 points. It is also obvious that we have in our institution a great many men who are beyond the draft age limit, and it is generally known that I.Q.'s tend to dissipate themselves after one has reached one's thirty-fifth year.

A further study of our men reveals the fact that approximately 40 per cent. of our people have been at one time or another in a high school programme. This does not mean that they graduated from high school, but they have been in our high schools. It is also true that approximately 5 per cent. of our people have at one time or another been enrolled in our colleges and universities. It ought, therefore, to be obvious that in such a sample as we have in mind that there would be capable men, who with special training in education, and in the field of their interest, could be expected to carry on successfully a teaching programme. We believe that our teachers have for the most part responded to this appeal, and have adjusted nicely to the situation. Such a programme, of course, provides for our better adjusted men opportunities of usefulness in the prison.

Two subjects are outstanding among our students—the first is arithmetic, the second is English. This is true not only in our class study, but in both of the correspondence divisions. The average student carries three courses; one on ‘prison time’, one in his cell on his own time, and one on Saturdays and Sundays, which is on free time. In our programme we find that the student proves his integrity, not only by attending class, but by his individual efforts in correspondence, and in the special Saturday and Sunday lecture courses. The school provides an opportunity for the inmates to segregate themselves according to their own desires, ambitions, and ideals. The inference is that our better men want to come to school, because the learning process is recognized by every one as worthy. In any case our statistics indicate that those men who do come to school are approximately 3-1 better ‘risks’ to make good once they are given parole and returned to society. The fact that they do make good as future citizens does not necessarily say that this is a result of the achievement of the school through its curriculum. Those who do not come to school are all too frequently the blind and the halt and the feeble-minded and the habitual criminal. It is believed, however, that rehabilitation is actually developed and made a reality through the school studies. Many men ‘find’ themselves purposefully interested as the result of our school programme with its variety of contacts and

interests. It is generally understood that no individual is wholly bad, and all too frequently the fact of a particular weakness in the individual has been the cause of his undoing and incarceration. Such unfortunate traits can sometimes be developed into usefulness through education. At least complementary interests may be developed in the place of the traditional anti-social patterns.

The programme here at San Quentin has purposefully maintained itself for a period of ten years, with the idea that results from such a period of time-study would definitely authenticate the place of education in our prisons. During this time there have been no serious changes in our programme. The thing has moved on quietly, continuously, and definitely. It has now become recognized as a significant and proven experiment. At this time there is being prepared for publication the first of a series of Year Books on Prison Education in the United States. This seems in itself evidence that prison education has achieved its majority, and is a permanent adjunct to a prison programme. The National Education Association is likewise incorporating in its programme a Department of Prison Education. We believe that these developments speak for themselves, and that the outlook for penology is increasingly better as penology recognizes the absolute need and the importance of an adequate educational programme.

Aggressiveness in Children

Sybille L. Yates

AGGRESSIVENESS is a normal component of everyone’s make-up; without it ordinary life could hardly go on. It is a weighty factor in the ability to master things, to stand up for oneself; it enters directly into much play and into sexual activity and indirectly into most creative work. This being the case, we cannot regard every manifestation of aggressiveness in a child as something to be checked, as something to be deplored.

In little children, aggressiveness is seen in its most direct and undisguised form. A child

will hit or push or fight another who takes his toy; at a certain stage he is likely to turn round and bite an adult or another child who displeases him. With great gusto he will squash an unoffending insect and, when he is angry, he will tell you that he will eat you all up or will bite you into little pieces.

The child feels impotent or thwarted and reacts directly to his feelings. He has, as yet, little idea of the consequences of his act or of the real extent of the physical damage he may be able to inflict. He pushes another child or

a grown-up because that is what impulse tells him to do. He asks in all seriousness if the wall will fall down when he pushes it. Only gradually does experience teach him the limits of his power and that a bite or a blow really damages and hurts.

Three to four-year-old children do not know the meaning of unselfishness because they have hardly yet envisaged another's point of view. It is only when this is achieved and identification through loving the other can take place that unselfish conduct becomes possible. Thus the elder child in these early years may be extremely aggressive to any newcomer to the house, whether a baby brother or sister or a little visitor. Sometimes serious injury may be inflicted unless adults are on the look-out for such happenings in a child who has shown strong aggressive tendencies.

The child's feelings are immediate and strong and the ability to reason or to control them consciously is as yet undeveloped. It would, therefore, be foolish to regard these early acts of aggression as though they had been performed by a child of seven or eight. The main care of the adult in dealing with the aggressiveness of these early years should be to treat it in a calm manner and to avoid meeting aggressiveness with equal aggressiveness whether of anger or of threats or punishments.

The child should be given as much freedom to express his aggressive feelings as is compatible with preventing his inflicting real damage of any extent. Expression of aggressiveness in phantasy should be accepted with little or no comment and certainly with no attempt to stimulate pity: 'What would happen to poor mummy if you bit her all up?' Aggressive actions, on the other hand, should be reasonably controlled. That is to say the adult should not be a martyr, should not allow himself to be bitten nor permit one child to hit another excessively. These actions can, and should, be stopped firmly but without any undue show of moral disapproval.

The 'ultra modern' may ask, 'Why should they be stopped at all?' For one's own sake, for the sake of the other children, for the furniture, and even more because too much real hurting and smashing becomes unbearable to the child himself, arouses in him too much

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guilt and makes his conscience too threatening and severe.

Aggressive behaviour at this stage often takes the form of breaking and destroying toys. The tendency to scold or punish the child for this should be checked and simple and inexpensive playthings like wood, paper, and plasticine should be provided instead of the costly and elaborate mechanical toys. It is, in fact, important that, during these years, ample opportunity should be given for the child to vent his aggressive and power impulses on to material things so that people may be immune from attack; hammering, moulding, tearing, cutting, should be given free expression.

When a small child first joins a group of children, he has to make great mental and emotional readjustments. He will, particularly if he is timid, tend to stand apart and his first definite relations to other children of the group are often of an aggressive character. It is now an established fact that these aggressive acts are his first manifestation of sociability and are the prelude and the channel to more socialized behaviour. Many parents stop this initial

aggressiveness towards other children so drastically that the child never reaches the final stage, but remains timidly outside the group, frightened to play with other children. In some cases this attitude may last into quite late school life. How often from the very timid, unsociable schoolchild, the one who cannot mix, does one not hear the story: 'Mummy doesn't like me to fight anyone. She says it's not nice'. He has been unable to express his aggressive feelings at all and has not even been allowed to defend himself and so has remained terrified both of his own impulses and of others who exhibit these forbidden activities.

The schoolchild who is very aggressive, who deliberately hurts others and destroys toys, is a different case. Here a degree of control corresponding to his intelligence is not being exerted. One must therefore try to understand his aggressiveness as a symptom of psychological conflict, showing anxiety, fear and feelings of inferiority being compensated for by his acting as the cruel one, the bully, or as the result of a really severe thwarting and bullying environment.

The effect of bad early training in producing later aggressiveness has been vividly brought home to me in doing Child Guidance work. Several cases who manifested great degrees of aggressiveness have proved to have shown training difficulties in their early days and were then bullied and frightened by their parents and later at school have taken to tearing up clothes and sheets, destroying toys and being cruel to other children. Again, when a child suffers a sudden handicap such as a severe illness, he may become very threatening and aggressive. One such instance I have known in an active, sport-loving boy, who was confined to his bed for many months with acute rheumatism. During convalescence at home he became extremely difficult in this way.

Another type of child who is often abnormally

aggressive is the one who is not allowed to do anything for himself or to be of any help in the home. He begins to feel that he is bad and can do nothing but wrong; so he can only react by trying to defy still more all that he feels fate has in store for him or else become guilt laden and fall ill with some neurotic symptom. Give him these outlets and if the case has not gone too far, the exaggerated aggressiveness ceases at once. One child, I have seen in this situation, acted the big giant and bullied his mother abominably if not undeservedly.

In adolescence, the aggressive impulses manifest themselves in a somewhat different form. They commonly find active expression in fierce argumentativeness, and in rebellion to home behests or they become manifest in aggressive sexual phantasies and sometimes in very masochistic sexual phantasies.

I have tried to show in this article that aggressiveness, though a normal component of human character, may become distorted or developed into an abnormal trait through environmental influences, the most important of which is undoubtedly the parents attitude and behaviour in the child's first years. To avoid such undesirable development as far as may be, I would advise parents always to try to help their child to tolerate his aggressive feelings so that he can learn to deal with them himself. It is vital that parents avoid causing the child to cloak his feelings from himself by reacting in a shocked manner and saying, 'How awful to feel that about father or mother when they are so good to you'. Far better is it to allow verbal expression of hostile phantasies without condemnation so that the child may gradually learn that phantasied aggression is not omnipotent and cannot magically accomplish its ends. For if thoughts and feelings can be tolerated there is much less likelihood of the development of a too severe conscience, leading to undue repression and symptom formation.

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Love in School

D. F. P. Hiley

NEARLY all who read this title will experience a sensation almost of horror, or they may perhaps smile a superior smile. That is, I suppose, because we are a sentimental people and therefore are afraid of any word that expresses emotion. We skirt round the word 'love' except in such a harmless, and incorrect, use as 'I love bloater paste'. We are frequently reassured and braced in church by the assertion that love is an effort of the will, and not an offering of the heart. Whereby some of the most exquisite and explosive passages of the Bible are made of none effect, and love emerges totally indistinguishable from duty.

This particularly British inclination to philophobia, if one may call it so, is responsible for some curious and dangerous standards and repressions. Amongst these is that instinctive recoil from the suggestion of love in school as, at the worst, pernicious, and at the best, a 'problem'.

This point of view is so pervasive that it demands a steady inspection. We do not need to reiterate the claim that schools provide a preparation for life. Yet love is the basis of the Christian interpretation of life, is in fact the platform on which the exponents of all the more lofty religions meet. Moreover, if all religious interpretations whatsoever should be repudiated, still love is both the end and the means of that high-powered altruism which is put by many into the place of religion. It is even said sometimes with a curious confusion of action with thought, to *be* Christianity, as though the bottle of medicine were the same thing as the science of healing.

If, then, school is the preparation for a life of which love is, or ought to be, the framework, it should neither expel love nor ignore it. If love is the strongest of motive forces it ought to be used in school. If it is one of the faculties of the human personality, it must be trained and exercised. If it is a faculty liable to abuse, all the more does it call for direction and

control. Our neglect of these commonsense considerations helps to reduce love to the 'problem' which we mock at uneasily, or try to shuffle out of sight, or to deflect on to some safe good cause.

Not that this attitude of mind is as common as it appears to be, because in this country we are much more accustomed to dealing with difficulties than theorising about them. At a conference a speaker may be given enthusiastic applause not because he is hailed as an innovator, though he may think so, but because he has reduced to a neat formula his new experiment which many of his audience have been carrying out for years, but not analysed. Our method of education, like our system of government, is empirical.

Love is essentially a reaching out towards something above or beyond ourselves, coupled with, though in a secondary degree, the desire to possess, or be absorbed in it. Consequently any lessons that guide and purify our love of beauty are very directly emotional training, and when they lead, as they all should, to some sort of constructive or creative action, they assuage our restless desire for union with that which we worship. Take a very simple example—anyone with even a slight artistic impulse, faced suddenly with a vase of exquisitely consorted flowers, may be filled by an almost painful ecstasy of exaltation and desire. What can he do? He cannot eat them: he cannot roll in them: he can only take a brush or a crayon and do his best to make them his by some act of communion. However inadequate the result, his longing has found vent and his restlessness is pacified. It is clear that certain subjects, especially music, art, handwork, serve this purpose in the highest degree, but for some minds, the solution of a problem, the rendering of a prose, or the drawing of a map or diagram, accomplish the same end less obviously. This digression into subjects taught is not as remote as it may appear from the matter in hand. If these lessons are well

handled then emotions are not thwarted, and rendered unwholesome. They are on the contrary made appreciative and critical, are exercised and supplied with plenty of impersonal objects for their attention. The emotional system in consequence is healthy and sane. Not that every teacher who is enthusiastic about these subjects, and the benefit which children derive from them, would define that benefit, or be ready to admit that it was emotional at all. But this lack of precision may be in some ways a gain. Faculties are exercised best and most naturally when exercised unconsciously, especially in childhood. For example, country lore, gathered unawares, and not as 'Nature Study' is more easily absorbed and stored up against the realization of affinity which comes much later, or perhaps does not come at all, explicitly.

This is most emphatically true of emotional training. Love which is perpetually conscious of itself is either very new or profoundly egotistic, just as a deliberate love of beauty becomes mere æstheticism. A child's love of his parents is only momentarily aware of itself, brought to the surface by such occurrences as parting, or illness, or possibly by a poignant and inexplicable identification of it with the dawning realisation of natural beauty. Love in school should have the same deep serenity of taken-for-grantedness. There is only one thing more important than its unconsciousness, and that is its absolute genuineness. This is a question of environment. One cannot really take in children for long, though they cannot, of course, realize what they are wanting unless they have had it. It is possible to have a reiteration of 'dear' in the air without the sense of security and trust which comes only from an unquestioning acceptance of affectionate understanding. This cannot be put on, like an academic gown, for class purposes. Moreover, the child's relations with others must be set against a congruous background. The whole fabric of school life must be woven of the same tissue. With children more than anyone, action speaks louder than precept. It is not merely that the gift we offer must be as flawless as the gift we demand, but as we realize more and more that children can only develop ideally in a happy home, so also the

corporate life of school should be unscarred by division. I once heard of a child who went home from sitting for a scholarship examination at a certain school, and told her mother that she must go to that school because 'the teachers spoke so nicely to each other'. How insubstantial the data but how unerring the judgment! No doubt the staff frequently think that they are behaving 'as a lady should' when they take over a lesson or a charge with acid civility, but their little pupils have penetrated the thin disguise to the cold antagonism beneath. There must indeed be degrees of warmth in one's relations with individual colleagues, but there is no reason why cordial co-operation should not be the substance of them all. So also the attitude of the staff to the Head should be one of trust, respect, and a warm friendliness halting somewhere this side of devotion. That is perhaps only possible when the Head's position in relation to the Governing Body is one of confident security. Insecurity is the breeder of suspicion—that most embittering suspicion to an honest and zealous person, when each new suggestion is met with the unexpressed question, 'What does she think she will get out of this?'

In none of these relations does love involve blindness. The genuine impulse to admit no fault in those we love is one that must be exorcised at all costs if we are to be of any use to them as teachers or as friends. It is easy: it is self-indulgent: it is flattering to our sense of generosity: it is sentimental and immature and destructive: it is as remote as it could possibly be from our conception of divine love, which is essentially tolerant, or rather forgiving, and on that basis, constructive. It must be so because not otherwise can it be true and, in the right sense, realist.

There must be a core of sternness in love. There is room even in Christianity for the scourge of small cords. The present tendency to think that unpleasant actions are either no one's fault, or someone else's, is apt to lead simply to blurred vision. It finds at any rate no support at all in the inflexible righteousness of the healthy-minded young. The profound paradox 'It must needs be that offences come, but woe unto him by whom the offence cometh' must surely mean that to err is human, but

our individual responsibility is not thereby lessened.

It is clear that the question of punishment is germane to this discussion. Obviously in an ideal community there would be none. But in an ideal community there would be no wrongdoing. What is not so clear is whether we gain by letting the ideal obtrude on us *in medias res*, that is after the offence. Whether we will or not, unpleasant consequences follow on evil-doing. Is it not as well that, to the extent of our ability, they should fall on the offender and not only on the offended? Some people however have run their schools, with manifest success, without any system of punishment at all, I would therefore only presume to suggest possible dangers: in the first place it would seem to place the emphasis on personal ascendancy rather than on a communal code. Words also would be likely to assume undue importance, since they, and the emotions they engender, would become the only instruments of government. In such circumstances it would be very difficult to keep them just adequate, and always sincere. Further, there must be a great many honest and upright people whose present stability of character depends on their having been found out the first, and only, time they did a really deceitful or dishonest thing. It may well have been the punishment that left that ineffaceable impression.

The chief objection to punishment lies in the fallibility of teachers. But our lives as teachers, as parents, as employers of labour, are so beset by these responsibilities that to shun responsibility is to shun life. We must fall back on the paradoxical truism that to seek always safety is the most dangerous course of all. To avoid punishment is not to avoid injustice. Injustice is a matter of thought and speech, of a word spoken or a word withheld, of an intonation even. Injustice must come: the important thing is that it matters extraordinarily little in a community where justice and understanding and affection are the rule. The philosophical tolerance of children is inexhaustible where they believe the intention to be fair. They will then readily forgive the unpardonable lapses of temper and patience and even sympathy, as well as the venial mistakes due to wrong information or mis-

interpreted observation. These things are then taken as mistakes and not as injuries, and they leave no scar. It is a good thing if a teacher comes up suddenly against a look of resentment, and therefore has reason to doubt either her own temper or conclusions or the child's sullenness, to say 'Think it over and if you feel to-morrow that I have been unfair, come and talk to me about it!'

Children are very imitative, very subject to suggestion and environment. They will soon mete with the measure that is measured to them. Suspicion soon breeds distrust and deception. Confidence and affection as readily induce fair dealing, straightforwardness, kindness, the bearing of one another's burdens. We may call these things sportiness, or the team-spirit, even the spirit of service if we like, but the sentimental avoidance of sentimental terms can become as tiresome as the humourless worship of humour.

There is one quality, however, which we should not expect much of in children's dealings with each other, and that is mercy. This deficiency does not come from hard-heartedness, but from a happy ignorance of pain, an innocent inexperience of life's extenuating circumstances and tangled motives. People are either accepted or rejected by them without compromise. The favourite reading at that stage shows that a villain with good qualities or a hero with bad, is merely worrying. They are at the Old Testament stage of somewhat bloodthirsty righteousness. To be impatient of this, and to endeavour to produce the gentler 'fruits of righteousness' out of season, may only endanger a child's standard of values. All one can do is to try to explain individual cases as they arise, and hope too many will not obtrude themselves.

In a recent number of *Punch*, E.M.D. hit off the conversation of two or three school girls about those set over them. With a swift stroke or two of her practised knife she laid bare alike the kind of child one would not have, and the sort of school one would not choose. With devastating truth that particular attitude of mind was revealed with its unwholesome combination of ridicule, patronage and antagonism. The contrary, but by no means incompatible, attitude of adulation has become all

too familiar, and one wishes that its study might be left, for a time at least, to the trained psychologist. The subject of this article is rather the ordinary intercourse of school.

The discipular relationship is a necessary and beautiful thing. To the modest mind there is no doubt something offensive about that term. But etymology does not help us. As far as that is concerned it is as plain as it can be, free from any miasma of veneration or subservience. It is only analogy which gives it any emotional tone. 'Let us free our minds of cant' and examine this curious bond. It is one of the many stock patterns which love takes and there is no other precisely like it, with its strong affection tinged with reverence, its intimacy and aloofness, its comradeship and subordination. Adolescents need some sort of loving relationship with older and more experienced people. They may or may not get this at home. Even if they do, there is frequently more intimacy and more equality with the people who teach one than with one's parents. Parents find it so difficult to realize their children are growing up. They too often have them conveniently pigeonholed and labelled with certain qualities, so that they cannot allow them to develop new habits and new interests without remark and even a thorough hullabaloo. Moreover they will not readily allow their children to have tastes they have not got themselves, whereas at school the children naturally gravitate to the person who has got them. To put it bluntly, one's relations are forced on one, while one chooses one's own friends. The choice among one's contemporaries is pleasant enough, but soon exhausted. There is a crudity about them which is exasperating, or at least unsatisfying, to a number of boys and girls who genuinely prefer the companionship of grown-up people, at any rate sometimes. Naturally, at a boarding school this need is even more urgent. An expanding mind turns to the people who deal with it on an intellectual plane. On the other hand no one can teach any subject sincerely without a great deal of self-revelation. In fact, no one can know the teacher's mind as well as his pupils, so that intercourse on the teacher's side also can be productive of a unique and welcome understanding. It is

easy to gibe at a sudden and general addiction to Science because the Chemistry mistress is fluffy and blue eyed ; none the less intellectual companionship is a reality. To those who really care about knowledge, or thought, or beauty, the unveiling of these things by a friend is alike an enhancement of their value and an enrichment of the friendship, an initiation by an honoured priest. A relationship based on the sharing of noble things is itself noble.

But if the contact of a teacher with his pupils were through intellectual things only, he would only touch the few. His sympathy would be comparatively negligible if it were not more catholic than that. Ideally nothing human must be alien to him. A teacher's value to his pupils is not primarily as an expounder of knowledge but as an interpreter of life. This at least is common to them all : the most unresponsive, the least academic are alike stepping on board. They will all listen with equal eagerness to the traveller who has been on ahead to strange lands, the returned merchant who brings out of his treasure things new and old. Herein lies the teacher's chief responsibility. What are his treasure, jewels, or pebbles ? Is their lustre an enduring magic or has it faded with the spray of distant seas ? It may well be that their real value will appear only on examination, dependent even on this sharing of the spoil with others. His lavishness calls forth a like generosity. The unseasoned travellers, with hesitation at first, produce their own outfit. 'Will this do ?' 'Shall I need that ?' 'I hardly know', as he tries the edge. 'I should be inclined to . . .' 'I have always found . . .'

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Some of Five Hundred Questions on Child Art . . .

Wilhelm Viola

Collaborator with Cizek in the Juvenile Art Centre,
Vienna ; author of 'Child Art and Franz Cizek'

IT is a nice and very democratic English habit to ask questions after lectures, and profitable too, for both audience and lecturer. I have learnt a lot after each of the seventy or more lectures I have given all over Great Britain from June 1938 to last June. There were at least five hundred different questions. May I quote some of them and answer them as I tried to do—after my lectures? I take for granted that some of Cizek's ideas are familiar to the readers of this magazine. For instance : every child is born creative. (This does not mean that he is always very good in a definite medium, such as drawing.) The child has therefore to create and not to copy. There are eternal laws in Child Art.

In Glasgow, at the very active N.E.F. Branch, I was asked, Can others get the same results as Cizek?

Cizek, undoubtedly, has an easier task. He is a genius and, almost fifty years ago, he discovered Child Art. The average teacher cannot possibly have this experience. He may have had no training or a bad training in Child Art. He may find a rigid curriculum, insufficient space in the art room—if there is one—and the small amount of time devoted to arts and crafts too great a handicap. Still, he has one thing in common with Cizek—the child. Of course, much depends upon the teacher. He can be inspiring or the opposite ; he can criticize positively or negatively ; he may kill by his irony, or encourage by kindness. Then, children in Dalmuir are different from children in Vienna—though both obey, unconsciously, the same laws in their creativeness. But, even the most humble school can, and should, achieve the same level in the works of its pupils, provided that the children get sufficient material, time, and freedom.

At the Kilmarnock N.E.F. meeting one of the questions was : Books or loose leaves?

Cizek does not use books even for the very young ones. The younger children get framed metal blocks in which there is always a fresh sheet of paper. A small child easily tires if he is given several leaves together. It is also clumsy. When the drawing or painting is done, the leaf is removed (and very carefully kept by Cizek) and the next time a new sheet is introduced. The older children work at easels.

Another question in Glasgow was : What number of children in classes?

The average number of children in Cizek's classes is 25. I know there are classes in Great Britain with 50 children. (There are in other countries too.) To do Child Art in an overcrowded class is a very difficult task, certainly. But one can attain

something even with a class of 55 ; I have seen this for myself in Stoke-on-Trent. The ideal number is 25-30.

One of the girls of St. Leonard's, St. Andrews, asked : Are the children taught perspective or do they find out about it for themselves?

The word perspective is unknown in Cizek's school. It is wrong to impose upon a young child adult conceptions of 'right' perspective, proportion, etc. The children themselves develop it gradually. The teacher should not hasten their maturing. Cizek believes with Goethe in 'organic growth'!

Among the 34 (!) questions I was asked at the Minister Doughter's School in Edinburgh were the following : Do children of seven begin too late?

They should begin earlier, of course, as early as possible. But seven, anyway, is better than eight or ten or never.

Are fathers and mothers allowed to see the work of the children?

At the end of a 'lesson' which lasts, by the way, one hour and a half for the children under ten and two hours for the older ones, the parents are made welcome. They are allowed to walk around and even to listen to the discussion which Cizek often leads when the children have finished their work. The children are encouraged to express their views, but the parents are not permitted to say a single word.

Do children work at home?

Many children do some drawings, paintings and sometimes even modellings at home, but quite voluntarily. They usually bring their private efforts to Cizek who speaks about them and, if it is genuine work, keeps it. That makes the children proud and happy.

Can they paint a sky purple or yellow?

Of course, why not? Children often have within them their own harmony of colours. A picture is not a photograph. There was an elephant in purple in Cizek's class.

When I spoke to the Montessori Society in Edinburgh I was asked : Should children of eight or nine be allowed to use a rubber?

Nothing is forbidden by Cizek. They can use a rubber and, I am almost inclined to say therefore, they hardly ever use one. When one watches unspoiled young children one is struck by the absolute confidence with which they work. They know what they want.

At the Streatham Hill Training College : Would Cizek have models for clay modelling?

Cizek uses no objects at all. Children, as long as they are sufficiently creative, need no models. They create everything from imagination.

At the marvellous new Thistley Hough School, Stoke-on-Trent, one of 36 questions was : Does Cizek paint himself?

Cizek was a painter, but as far as I know he has not touched a brush in the last thirty years. There are enough artists, he says, perhaps too many. It is more important that children should create.

At the Bangor Normal College of Wales : Explain why it is not desirable for a child to tend towards naturalism!

It is a preconceived idea, and one highly treasured by some people, that naturalism is the perfection of art. It is rather a decline. The child wants to be creative. With our civilization he will be naturalistic anyway very soon. But the teacher or school has to fight against the child becoming an adult too quickly—a 'hopeless' adult, as an Austrian once said. On the other hand it would be wrong to keep the child artificially at an early stage. Again, organic growth!

From Newcastle University : Are we getting worse by growing older?

There can hardly be any doubt which is stronger, more genuine, more beautiful, in one word, more artistic, the work of the four- or five-year-old (Cizek would say the two- and three-year-old) or the fifteen-year-old child. Still, we cannot eternally remain small children. (Perhaps the great artists remain children.) But what Cizek fought for during his whole life was to make people, and especially teachers, see the immense beauty in the so called clumsy, stupid works of small children. There is nothing stronger on earth, he said repeatedly.

At the Abbotsholm School, where I spent a wonderful week last winter, I was asked : How young does Cizek take his pupils?

He is happiest when he gets children of two or three. Then he is sure that they are unspoiled by adults. Usually the children are six years old, and he keeps them until fourteen. If a child enters his Juvenile Art Class only at nine or ten, the teacher's task is much more difficult. Then he has to counteract the influence of adults; then he has to do all he can to guide the child back to himself.

At Chesterfield—under the leadership of Dr. Stead—I was asked : When a child is too skilful, the medium is changed—why?

It does not very often happen that a child will become too skilful in one medium. But if he does, there is the danger that he will produce automatically. (It happens with adult artists too!)

At Manchester University : Do children of all years work together?

The children are divided into two groups, one up to ten, and the other from ten to fourteen. It sometimes happens that a child of eight is in the older group, and *vice versa*. There are advantages in having children not quite of the same age together. (Of course there are boys and girls.) There is some kind of co-operation, although children are great individualists and want to work alone. Still, a friendly talk with the neighbour, a visit to the

friend on the other side of the class, inspecting his work; indeed the whole atmosphere in the room with its gentle beehive humming is helpful to creative work. It is a room where children like to be. If only all schools would realize how important it is to make classes cheerful, gay, pleasant, enjoyed by the children! Not only child art, but all subjects would flourish.

In a course of lectures for the Kent Education Committee one of the questions was : Can parents' influence be counteracted?

It should be in many cases, but it is no easy task. First of all the teacher should try to make the parents see the work of their children with right eyes. They very often still only want skill, repetition, copying. Discussions with parents, exhibitions of children's work, but not only the 'best' ones, visits to the art class might be helpful in preventing parents from influencing their children in a wrong way. 'If we had educated parents', Goethe once said, 'we would not need education'.

In a course given under the auspices of the Essex Education Committee I was asked : Does Cizek allow the children to mix their own colours?

The young children get the colours, usually inexpensive powder colour, already mixed. Not too many, by the way, but strong, not subdued, colours. (It is a superstition of some people in England that English children have to use subdued colours because of the climate.) The brightest colours are exactly right for children. The older pupils mix their colours.

At Alexandra College, Dublin : Did Cizek ever attempt to let children paint in time to music?

He did it rather often. He found that the rhythm of music helps them in their rhythm of work. There is a gramophone in the class—the gift of an English lady—and he has records of really good music, and, not always, but often there is music. Sometimes the children ask for it. There is a piano in the adjoining room, and any child who wishes is allowed to play there for a while.

At the Matlock Nursery and Infants Teachers Course one question was : If we should try to break down imitation as much as possible, what has a father to do when his child asks him to draw a train?

Or a horse or a car or whatever it is . . . The father should not do it. If he is very wise he should say, and it would increase his child's love and respect: 'I don't know'. He could not, by the way, do it better than the child. He only thinks he can. Cizek never draws for a child. They hardly ever ask him to do it. If they should ask, his answer might possibly be: 'If I wanted to do a horse I should know how to do it. But I don't want it; you want it.' Or: 'But surely, Mary, you know it, sure!' What a child wants, very often, is nothing but encouragement. A few words are better than any drawing which the child copies afterwards. For copying is the sin.

A Neutral Area in Difficulties

I WENT down to Barnet in a militant mood. It was said to be one of the neutral areas with a bad record as regards non-provision for its school children. But a half-day spent there was a most dis-arming experience. I suppose I had suspected a general indifference to education, improper commandeering of school buildings and stinginess on the part of the local education authority. I found the reverse of all these things, conscientiousness, enthusiasm, and a generous expenditure, all hampered, though by no means quenched, by mud.

Barnet is one of those 'dormitory' towns which have grown with such surprising speed round London—the very rapidity of their growth making the provision of adequate social services a problem. It has some very fine school buildings. The Senior School at East Barnet—boys and girls in separate wings on either side of a great grass court—is a beautiful building, with a superb school hall (stage with jade green curtains, gymnasium, science laboratories, handicraft room, domestic subject rooms, and a flat). The site is high and full of space. But the earth itself is London clay plus some sort of crumbling dirt. Double the normal rainfall in October and November has reduced it to something nearer liquid than solid—something that is everywhere but where you want it, a heart-breaking as well as back-breaking medium for trench digging or gardening.

At the end of July the Hertfordshire County Council advertised for tenders for $6\frac{1}{3}$ miles of trenches to be lined with pre-cast concrete units in accordance with the Home Office specification. The lowest suitable tender was for £40,000, but the firm which put it in withdrew before a contract was signed and the Council was obliged to close with another firm of contractors at £50,000. There was some further delay over details in connection with the contract which was finally signed on August 28th.

The contractors put up a concrete pre-casting plant specially for this job at a cost of £1,000. But production was for a time virtually brought to a standstill by the shortage of mild steel for reinforcing the concrete trench linings, so it was decided to roof and line the trenches with

brick and timber instead of with concrete and steel. The timber shortage has since made this change of plan of doubtful value as a time-saver, but as there is now a greater supply of mild steel available, production of concrete linings has now recommenced.

Meanwhile, the Education Committee, anxious about the delays, arranged for the contractors to proceed with the digging of the trenches. Hundreds of yards of these, 4 to 6 feet deep, were dug partly by voluntary helpers, partly by unskilled local labour, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles have been completed in all about the country. But hundreds of yards of well-dug trenches became water-logged and fell, or rather melted, back into the surrounding mud before the contractors could get them floored, roofed and walled.

Even more distressing than this are the finished public trenches of which I saw several. None that I saw had less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet of standing water in them, and one whole batch (seven trenches, 50 yards each) had from 4 to 5 feet. The members of the Auxiliary Fire Service pump them out, but more for practice than for any practical purpose, I imagine, for they fill up again straight away and must be pneumonia traps for even the hardiest. Perhaps a more intelligent survey of the land with due regard to the water table in the allocation of trenches and in their drainage might have overcome some of the technical difficulties of trench digging.

In view of this unhappy experience with trench making, the Education Committee has now decided to shore up and sandbag the suitable inner recesses of existing school buildings. This appears to be a satisfactory plan—affording adequate protection from blast and splinters, though not of course from a direct hit. It might be inferred that if this technique had been seriously embarked upon at the outset the problem would have been simpler, but now another impediment has arisen. Difficulties are being experienced in inducing the Official Controller of Timber to release even the modest amount of timber required for strutting buildings.

Yet this does not mean that Barnet's children are roaming the countryside. In East Barnet

85 per cent. of them are in school for four hours a day—an attendance figure that compares quite well with peace time. I was taken by the District Inspector of the Board of Education and his assistant to see three schools, a Junior Mixed, a small church school, and the Senior Boys', and had some talk with the Heads. They showed us the indoor A.R.P. provision that had been made and told us the lines on which they were working. The shift system had only started on October 25th and the Church School, to make up for lost time, had concentrated for a while on reading, writing, and arithmetic. The headmistress gave a delightful description of the children's joy when, at the end of this time, singing, dancing, and handwork once more took their proper place in the curriculum. The Junior School headmaster had that morning circularized the parents as to whether they would like their children to attend full-time, and 85 per cent of the children had brought back an emphatic 'yes'. The Senior School had taken in an Infants' School, whose temporary premises, an ex-Home Office School, have been commandeered for an A.R.P. station. (Erection of its new premises had been started a short time before the war broke out and has now perforce been postponed.)

All three head teachers were eager for the day when full-time work could begin again and yet ingenious at making the most of the half-time arrangements.

We ran into one of the attendance officers by chance, and I asked him whether it was the over-conscientious or the over-casual parents on the whole who were withholding their children from school. He said in his experience it was markedly the latter.

I came away feeling that this neutral area has not lost sight of its educational needs; four hours' school a day have been available to all its children since the end of October, and since Monday, December 11th, full-time education has been available in all the schools but one. Teachers and administrators are more aware than an outsider could be that arrangements have been makeshift and that education is more, rather than less, important to-day than hitherto.

Time did not permit of my visiting the neighbouring urban district of (High) Barnet. There the Local Education Committee, perhaps influenced by grim memories of aerial attack on their borders at Cuffley during the last war, did not accept the advice of the County Council to open schools on a voluntary basis pending the completion of A.R.P. Schools have opened one by one as the protective work was finished and now all save one senior school (partly held up by its use as a First Aid Station and partly by non-delivery of timber) are working normally. Even in this school something is being done for the children; small parties are meeting for the organization of homework on the plan now being adopted in the evacuation areas.

Our Part in a World at War —(Cont.)

Laurin Zilliacus

**Chairman, New Education Fellowship
Ex-Headmaster, Tölö Svenska Samskola, Helsinki**

IN what I wrote in *The New Era* last month I tried to interpret the underlying attitude towards world events that unites our members even in these distraught days. I tried to express no more and no less than the social and political commitments already made by the New Education Fellowship both explicitly and implicitly, although with application to present events. I have, in other words, tried to write as an executive functionary of our world-wide organization.

In what follows I shall impose no such

limitations. I have long held the view that educationists should throw themselves as adult citizens into the controversies of the adult world while avoiding anything like party politics in their schools. When grave problems confront us, I think we should take a stand on them. To do so intelligently we need frank discussion. Such discussion I should particularly like to see among the members of our organization just because our unity in fundamental outlook is a reason for hoping that we can arrive at an understanding about controversial surface

events. I am therefore going to give my personal views as a contribution to such a discussion. They are no doubt coloured by the facts that I am a citizen of Finland, that I have deep roots in that country, in England and in America and a special sneaking fondness for several other countries—that I am in fact a cosmopolitan with well-marked streaks of local bias. What I am now saying in no way commits or claims to speak for the N.E.F.

For me, political and social consciousness came brusquely with the horrors of 1914-1918. Before that the framework seemed unquestioned. My only contact with political events was the struggle against the encroachments of the Tsarist regime on Finland in which my father played a prominent part. We lived as a consequence mostly in exile, and there were exciting and even distressing moments. But it was a romantic, respectable, wholly satisfying and, so far as all the people I met were concerned, wholly non-controversial struggle. No one with a sense of decency belonged to the other side. When certain French politicians and French newspapers gave support to the Russians, that was plainly explained, rightly I believe, by their corruption, and when *The Times* changed hands and our solid support in the public opinion in England thereby developed a crack, that, too, was (rightly, I believe) explained by us as a piece of straightforward iniquity. The world was black and white and the lines of demarcation in the main state boundaries.

The war changed all that for me as for millions of other young innocents. What followed was for us a period of distressful mental confusion. The Secret Treaties, the Russian Revolution, the civil war in Finland which became a war of liberation from Russia, turned black into white and white into black and introduced red, not only as the colour of the blood so copiously shed, but as a dominant political factor, into my tidy world. The issues were not what they had appeared to be, the lines of demarcation no longer clear and still less national. During the painful period of reinterpretation there were two steady factors at work in me, as I believe in most of my fellow members of the N.E.F. and people of similar outlook. One was our attitude

towards children and the tendency to view social and political problems from the angle of education. The other was the growing awareness of the intolerable condition of insecurity, poverty, and political impotence of the great mass of the people everywhere in the world. As educationists we were trying in our institutions to enable children to grow into strong, fine persons, prepared to stand on their own feet and share in the direction of the common life. As social observers we could not fail to see that most children lacked the conditions for such a development and would not as adults have a fair share either of the resources or of the control of society.

Looking back over the twenty years since 1919, I now see these factors as the key to the interpretation of what has taken place. It is the struggle to win the conditions for growth to full human stature and to have a life worthy of that stature that is the fundamental fact of these years. In countries that have retained a fair measure of political democracy, there has been a growing amount of success: improved social services, an increasing share of the workers in determining conditions of employment (trade unions), and in political direction (parliamentary representation of labour parties and other parties sympathetic to the underprivileged). The New Deal of Roosevelt's administration derives its fire from the same source. In the Scandinavian States, free from imperialist or irredentist complications, the advance along the whole front of economic and political life has been particularly swift, but the same tendency towards a fairer share and a greater say for the common people has characterized all that part of the world that enjoys representative government. In countries under the domination of foreign peoples these twenty years have seen a rapid development of the demand for increasing self-government and ultimate independence. In so far as this demand has been part of the democratic movement, it has soon outgrown a purely nationalist stage and become part of a great programme for realizing the economic and social aspirations of the people. The Indian Congress movement offers perhaps the most striking example and is, to my mind, one of the great achievements of all times.

THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

The New Education Fellowship is a world organization. It sets out to further educational improvement and reform throughout the world so that every individual—whatever his nationality, race, status or religion—shall be educated under conditions which allow of the full and harmonious development of his whole personality, and lead to his realizing his responsibilities to the community.

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Full Membership	£1 1s. 0d.	includes copies of <i>The New Era</i> monthly and the International News and Notes.
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The onward march of democracy has not gone unchallenged. When the decision is left to the ballot box the outcome is certain. For that very reason the ballot box has been removed or withheld over great parts of the earth or its decision nullified by force. Political reaction is literally the reaction—a reaction of fear and hatred—to the forward move of the people and although it rules with truncheon and revolver, it pays in demagoguery its tribute to the masses. Even so, it lives precariously and it must divert on to other countries the barely concealed hatred it feels for its people and engenders in them. Dictatorships can only live by scapegoats, by war, and the threat of war, and ultimately by conquest and aggrandisement. The sequence reaction—dictatorship—persecution and aggression has presented itself with ghastly, clockwork precision more than once during the last twenty years.

I look back over these two decades and something of the indignation and despair I have so often felt sweeps over me again. Do you remember the Locarno conference, where the great Austrian educational leaders told us of the work that was soon to make Vienna the

mecca of educationists and sociologists? And then reaction came, and crushed the Viennese under the bricks of their beautiful dwellings, a reaction which was not only brought about by those who hated democracy in Austria, but was in itself an expression of the aggressive phase of another dictatorship. And do you remember our meeting in Nice, where we fêted the author of those words in the Weimar constitution that laid down that the German child should be brought up in the spirit of the reconciliation of the peoples? And the urbane Becker and all the accounts of the move towards New Education in democratic Germany? And then came reaction, which unloosed violence without end on the people it had mastered by fraud. I visited that country of shambles and prisons and talked in whispers behind closed doors and barred windows to those of our members who still could be found. I have, like so many others, taken my share in patching a tiny fragment of the human lives broken by the German reaction and its satellites, and to me the revelations of the British White Paper on concentration camps was only a mild shock; the shock of realizing

that so easily ascertained truth had not long since been laid before great sections of the reading public.

But I must not get lost in details. The main lesson I drew from these beginnings was that a struggle to the death was being urged between democracy and reaction. Democracy is gaining wherever the elementary rules of civilized political life are being kept, but this very fact tempts the reactionaries to throw legality and humanity to the winds. The claim they generally make—that they are fighting communism—is a blind. They are fighting democracy. They will crush it at home first and then set about bringing other peoples under the yoke.

The first large scale aggression took place in 1931 in the Far East. Others followed at ever closer intervals. Sometimes the invaded peoples resisted, sometimes they gave up without a struggle. In no instance were they effectively aided by the so-called democratic states in spite of the most solemn treaty undertakings. The climax of 'democratic' dishonour was reached over Spain, when the intervention of the aggressor was connived at under the cloak of non-intervention, and over Czechoslovakia, where the States pledged to aid the victim actually forced him to deliver himself tied hand and foot to the aggressor.

The months after the Munich dismemberment were a nightmare. The Albanians, the Greeks, the Slovaks were all brought under the shadow. The Spanish people were finally crushed and the unseemly triumphal marches of the non-intervening armies were held. Swollen by success, the aggressors rattled their swords and the air was filled with their roars and threats. Where would they strike next? The number of the persecuted swelled and the refugee problem alone was growing insoluble, intolerable for humanity. Worse than anything else were the stories that leaked out of the fate of the conquered behind the iron curtain of censorship. Time and again, as one listened in sick horror one felt like crying out: 'This *cannot* continue, it just cannot'. It could and did. And it was plain that it would not only go on but spread to still more victims unless it were stopped by force from without.

As the months dragged on, the insecurity

increased, the threats were intensified. Hitler chose his next victim and the nauseatingly familiar process was seen once more: demands, treaty repudiation, fabricated incidents, atrocity stories, foul abuse, the lie imputing aggressive designs to the victim and finally the attack. For two days the world hovered in suspense. Would the Western Powers once more default? On September 3rd Great Britain declared war, followed a few hours later by France. The challenge was met. At last, at last, was my reflection. Too late to avoid war, as it might have done if we had stood firm against the earlier transgressions. But in time to save democracy. Now that the challenge was fairly met, now it seemed clear to me that all hesitation, all doubts as to the nature of the struggle would be swept away. The very spear head of the anti-democratic reaction had been challenged (the Nazis had themselves proclaimed that their anti-communism had been a blind), and so there would necessarily be a great rallying of all the forces that make up democracy. This was no war between Britain, France, and Poland on the one hand and Germany on the other. This was the struggle for democracy brought on to the military plane, and it was the concern of democrats the world over. The oppressed Germans were our allies just as were the Austrians and Czechs and other victims of aggression. Here was, it seemed to me, one of the greatest opportunities in the history of mankind, and I confidently expected a reconstructed government in Great Britain to come into being and seize it—seize the chance to sketch out a New Deal for mankind, to tell their own people (including Indians and Colonial peoples) and the Germans that the issue was now democracy or dictatorship and that democracy *for all* was the allied aim.

It seems a long time since September 3rd, and I find it difficult now to recapture that feeling of confidence, of an enterprise to which I and all of us belonged heart and soul. Disturbing things have happened. In France civil liberties have been curtailed in a way savouring more of reaction than of war-time necessity, trade unions have been set aside, Parliament made a mockery, and while natural and tried allies against the Nazi tyranny have been rebuffed or even imprisoned, dubious figures

have been brought into the limelight and propaganda for a Hapsburg restoration is broadcast to the world. In England the government remains essentially unchanged and give no democratic lead. The Indian demand for democracy and offer of loyalty for common aims are rebuffed. The government refuses to state on what terms the German people can have peace, but allows Duff Cooper to tell America that a monarchist restoration would be the best thing for Germany, *i.e.* that the young men of Ontario should now fight to restore the regime in Germany that their fathers (and the Americans) fought to remove. Offers of service from foreign citizens are received with reluctance, even suspicion (here I speak out of the mouth of my wound, as the Spaniards say). To speak bluntly, I do not believe that the forces leading the Allies—the same forces in the main that led us into non-intervention at Munich—are striving towards anything very different from the *status quo ante Hitler*. My ‘at last’ I must reluctantly abandon for ‘not yet’.

Not yet. It is a sad conclusion, a disillusionment—but not a reason for no longer supporting the prosecution of the war. In so far as I am given the opportunity, I still wish to serve this end to the utmost of my ability. My reasons are the following. In the first place, those who take part in an enterprise have won right and won opportunity to influence it. There are many for whom a New Deal is the purpose of the struggle and their number should be swelled. In the second place this is a war against Hitler, and the destruction of his regime is a *sine qua non* of civilization. Into the already

complex situation the U.S.S.R. has thrown grave confusion. When the Russian revolution was made many of us welcomed it as a genuine expression, even if violent, of the struggle of the common people for a better life. It was a dictatorship and we did not like that, but then the Russians had never known anything but dictatorship. It was ruthless and violent and crude, but the mass of the Russians were a backward people. The apologists for Russia explained that given the economic structure of socialism, economic welfare and political democracy would follow, and imperialism would not rear its ugly head. For some time these claims seemed on the way to realization. Remarkable achievements were registered, a democratic constitution was on the way and we withheld judgment of the things we did not like and criticized the criminal mishandling of Soviet relations on the part of the ‘democracies’—intervention, blockade, and a long series of rebuffs.

Yet, whatever the cause, the U.S.S.R. has now become a horror in the world, a police state, highly militaristic both in its home and foreign policy. If Finland has to fight I shall join in, feeling that this is part of the struggle for democracy.

I remain a militant democrat, convinced that swift democratic progress is the only hope for mankind, and convinced, too, that democracy must be attained everywhere by democratic means—otherwise its ends themselves become perverted.

[This was written on the eve of Dr. Zilliacus' departure for Finland. He had no time to revise and correct the manuscript, much less to see proofs. E.D.]

N.E.F. News

ENGLISH SECTION

A series of three meetings to discuss *Education and the Evacuation* was organized in Oxford on November 25th and 30th and December 2nd. The theme of the first meeting was ‘The General Problems and Possibilities’ and the speakers were Mr. Beresford Ingram (L.C.C. Inspector) and Mr. Ogilvie. At the second meeting, Miss Marjorie Reeves (Tutor to the Society of Home Students, Oxford) spoke on ‘Play Centres and other Out-of-School Activities’, and Miss Marion Richardson (L.C.C. Art Inspector) discussed one particular form of activity, art work, which she illustrated with lantern slides and an exhibition of London school children's paintings. At the third meeting, Miss

New Education Fellowship, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

Ruth Thomas (Central Association for Mental Welfare) discussed the exploitation of the new environment in which evacuated schools find themselves and described a variety of out-of-class activities. The chair was taken by Mr. E. Salter Davies (Editor of *The Journal of Education*) and Mr. H. E. M. Icely (University Reader in Education), and the meetings were held in a room kindly lent us by the Training Department.

In Cambridge, on November 28th and 29th, we joined forces with the University Education Society in holding a short conference on *The Effects of Evacuation on State Education*. Mr. John Jarvie (President of the C.U.E.S.) presided and the speakers

were Mr. C. Walshe (Headmaster of an evacuated London school), Mr. Henry Morris (County Education Secretary) and Mr. Ogilvie.

The idea of these meetings—and we are planning to hold others in various centres—is to bring together the different forces engaged in serving the interests of the young : notably the teachers of the reception areas, the evacuated teachers, and the people who, in one way or another, are helping with clubs, play centres and other out-of-school organizations. If we are both to solve the immediate problems of an emergency situation, and also to derive the maximum advantage now and for the future from the present upheaval, we must think together and work together. It is our experience that the N.E.F. is in a particularly favourable position for providing the common meeting ground.

The demand for our new leaflet on 'Play Activities for Children', by Marjorie Reeves, Susan Isaacs and Paul Abbatt (reprinted from the November *New Era*), shows that we have struck on a real need. Copies may be obtained from Headquarters, price 2d. (3d. with postage).

One of our members has offered to help any teacher who may be trying to start work in English and French along the lines of the Dalton Plan. This offer might be especially helpful to teachers working under new conditions. Write to the Secretary, N.E.F.

Mr. A. J. LYNCH

Members of the N.E.F. all over the world will join in congratulating Mr. A. J. Lynch on his elevation to the office of Mayor of Tottenham. For many years now Mr. Lynch has served Tottenham, which is a large urban district on the circumference of London, as a leader and inspirer of educational and social progress. First as headmaster of West Green School, latterly in such positions as those of Chairman of the Education Committee and magistrate of the Juvenile Court, he has exercised a beneficent influence which has made him the 'father of Tottenham'. His pioneer work with the Dalton Plan, on which he has written so illumina-

tingly, and his devoted support of the N.E.F. from its earliest years in a number of capacities—as a speaker at its conferences in Great Britain and South Africa, as a writer in *The New Era*, as Field Secretary, as a member of its Executive Board—have made his name and personality known far beyond the bounds of his own country. We wish him, and with him Mrs. Lynch, all happiness and a fruitful term of office in the position which his fellow-citizens have honoured themselves by conferring upon him.

Dr. ZILLIACUS

Finland's position, under such tragic circumstances, in the forefront of the world's news will have turned many members' thoughts to our Chairman, Dr. Zilliacus. At the outbreak of the war he had made his way with great difficulty to England and was working with us at Headquarters. He was actually writing the article, which appears in this and last month's issues of *The New Era*, when news came that his home town, Helsinki, had been bombed. He set out for Finland the next day. The good wishes of all of us are with him and a fervent hope for his safe return.

NEW ZEALAND

The Hon. Peter Fraser is now in London, representing New Zealand at the Conference of Dominion Ministers. He was Minister of Education and Acting Prime Minister in 1937, and the warm reception and keen support which he extended to the N.E.F. delegation to New Zealand went far to make the visit the great success that it was. Those of the delegates who are now in Great Britain have joined in sending him a letter of welcome.

N.E.F. WORLD CONFERENCE

It is now thought best not to go ahead with plans for the World Conference in the U.S.A. in 1940, but to wait until 1941. If peace should come to Europe in time, the Conference may still be held ; if not, there will probably be a smaller Conference for the Americas and such other countries as are able to participate.

Book Reviews

The Case for Federal Union. By W. B. Curry. (Penguin Books, 6d.)

Two factors unfit me for the job of reviewing this book impartially : (a) acceptance of the necessity for a federal union and (b) great respect for Mr. Curry and the 'Conway Hall School' of rational democrats. All I can do is to say what Federal Union is and to assess Mr. Curry's persuasive skill in 'putting it over'.

Briefly the argument is that the League of Nations was bound to fail because it left foreign policy and armed forces under the control of the individual states, and peace can be assured only by vesting these functions in the elected government of a federal union—just as the United States government takes

them out of the hands of Massachusetts, Oregon, and the forty-six other states of the American Union. The constituent states (in this case France, Britain, U.S.A., and twelve more democracies) would reserve full autonomy in everything but foreign policy, control of armed forces, inter-state commerce, granting of Union citizenship, common Union currency and communications. The Federal Union would thus be a compromise between the centralized Wellsian world-state and the anarchic Wilsonian League. Difficult? Yes, but Mr. Curry replies that we must not confuse two quite distinct types of difficulty : (i) that of getting people to adopt an idea which is sound but rather novel and (ii) the inherent difficulty in trying to work a scheme with a faulty structure. The first can be overcome by

logical persuasion and propaganda, but the second will catch you out every time, even with the best brains and the best will in the world trying to work it.

Mr. Curry argues the case well, if at times a little querulously, acknowledging his debt to Norman Angell, Wells, Bertrand Russell and (more specifically by direct quotation throughout from 'Union Now') to Clarence Streit. But couldn't he have been a little more detailed and illustrative in his exposition of the *idea* of federalism, and a little less slavish in following Streit's method? Streit is an American and to him, and most of his readers, the idea of federalism is a commonplace. Most of Curry's readers will be British people who will want to know—and feel—how the federal principle would apply to the Houses of Parliament, elections, and the mechanics and tradition of government generally. Nor will they be such hard-boiled internationalists as Mr. Curry; and while not being particularly or foolishly patriotic, yet they need more sympathetic treatment than the chapter headed 'Does Nationalism Make Sense?'

'The Case for Federal Union' will, as the author says, not be the last word on the subject, not, we hope, will it be Mr. Curry's; but it does bring before the people (for 6d.) a reasoned plan for peace, democracy and co-operative progress; on him who rejects this plan will lie the onus of producing a better.

Denis McMahon

Points from Letters

Evacuation—The Receiving End

Having read and reread the article anonymously contributed under this heading, I am left wondering why it was written. Did the writer intend to solve problems or to stir up strife? By what authority did he speak, as a Director of Education, a rural Head Master, an Assistant Teacher, or as a Supplementary? What does it matter? Just this, that one can speak only from experience and one's experience cannot range through the whole gamut of the administrative and teaching staff.

I make no claim to speak for any except myself and in my capacity as Head Teacher of an evacuated London school and as such I take exception to the tone of the contribution.

It is essential that there should be no misunderstanding of the position of the London Teaching Staff so far as the question of 'preservation of identity' is concerned. This is evidently the feature which is the special *bête noire* of the contributor, who variously describes it as due to the 'vanity of various urban Head Teachers'—'incredible folly'—'a theory'—'a shadow'. As a matter of fact none of these terms is applicable. The instructions issued by the London County Council to its Teaching Staff were that the identity of each school was to be preserved, which we interpreted to mean that the children were to remain in the care of the teachers to whom they had been entrusted by their parents. Any arrangement involving the cancelling of this instruction we should therefore regard as a betrayal of the parents' trust in us.

Happy Lines. Selected by A. Rita Kaye. (Cassell & Co. Books 1 & 2, Paper 10d., Cloth 1/- Books 3 & 4, Paper 1/2, Cloth 1/4.)

This new series of poetry books for children, graded according to the age of the reader, is one to be very warmly recommended indeed, both for class use and for private reading.

The purpose of the books as stated in the preface is to encourage a love of poetry in children, and with this in view the compiler has chosen, not the poems 'which every child should know' but those which children like: the books have been to a large extent compiled from lists of their favourite poems sent in by children and teachers. The result is an anthology showing an amazing variety: thus songs such as 'The Farmer's Boy' appear by the side of some of Herrick's most charming verses, poems which have appeared in *Punch*, well-known pieces like 'Lord Ullin's Daughter' and little-known but lovely things like the Armenian Lullaby in Book IV.

Each book is concluded by a sort of very lively and undidactic questionnaire designed to make the children appreciate what they have read and select what they like best; also some of the poems are 'presented' to the reader by a few lines of introduction—apart from this the books are not academical in the least. The font is extremely attractive.

The contributor is also misinformed in regard to the influence of our Professional Associations. Evidently he imagines that the London Teachers' Association, the London Schoolmasters' Association, and the London Head Teachers' Association have given their members advice which is favourable to London teachers and adverse to rural staffs. Possibly he is unaware that these associations are in every case sections of national organizations and that their policy is therefore in keeping with the best interests not only of their own members but of their fellows in rural districts.

Again, criticism is levelled at those teachers one of whom regarded instructions given by the Director of Education 'as derogatory to her professional pride' and another who, being an evacuated assistant, 'declines to take instructions from any but her own Head or her own Local Authority'.

These two cases are also covered by the instructions issued to us by our employers the London County Council. These stated that the normal relationship by which they were our employers and we employed by them, held good during evacuation and that we were subject to the Director of Education in Receiving Areas only for 'purely routine' instructions. There seems to be no clear reason why our employers' instructions should be ignored.

One final word of criticism. We are told that 'hundreds of teachers have discovered that education is not after all solely a matter of palatial buildings, costly text-books, and blackboards'. This statement also shows lack of acquaintance with London

teachers and their outlook. There are few schools unable to show records, often extending over years, of school outlays, extended journeys, visits to museums, dramatic and musical interests, none of which depend upon palatial buildings, costly textbooks, or even blackboards.

It is surely unfortunate that the writer of the article did not delete all these hasty and ungenerous criticisms of those who have been compelled to be his guests. Had he taken this step his contribution might have had positive value as a preliminary exploration of the possibilities of a most revolutionary situation which, wisely handled, should point the way to positive advance in both education and social welfare.

I may add that I have been able to express to the local Secretary for Education and to the Head Teachers of the receiving schools with whom I have worked for twelve weeks, my appreciation of their courtesy and cheerful willingness to do what lay in their power to help my charges in their strange surroundings and co-operation has been mutual and extensive.

S. H. Cracknell, M.Sc., Ph.D.,

Head Master, Dalmain Road L.C.C. School, S.E.23

'As we all know, all schools in London are closed as an Air Raid Precaution. If a group of 100 children were killed at school in an air raid, think of the outcry and indignation and the fierce criticism that would be directed at the L.C.C., but if a thousand children were killed in different streets of the district it would merely go down in the statistics as part of the horror of war. So the schools remain closed.

'In Bermondsey about three-quarters of the children have returned from the country or did not

go at all for various reasons. These reasons do not concern us. What did concern us was that they were here and that there were no schools for them; so we opened educational centres in the district. They are staffed by voluntary workers and run in club and Sunday School premises. Half a century ago many parents objected to any type of schooling and were most violent in their protest against compulsory education when it was first made law, now they gladly pay 2d. a week for their children at one of these centres. This 2d. a week per child goes a little way towards buying some of the most necessary equipment. Much more has been sent us by Schools and Organizations. (In London Schools the textbooks lie unused under lock and key.)

'The children are divided into groups of roughly a dozen according to their age; 8-11 and 11-14 are the main groups, though some centres also take children from 5-8. Bermondsey has four such centres; there could be many more if room and teachers were available, as children are plentiful and the waiting lists long. The centres are open three times a week, lessons range from gymnastics to arithmetic, from folk-dancing to English composition, the staff mostly consists of social workers and A.R.P. personnel, who teach here in their spare time.

'The aim of these centres is not the continuation of the normal school syllabus. It is rather the maintenance of a certain standard of discipline and mental alertness until such time as the schools will again be opened. In the meantime it is hoped that the children will acquire some general knowledge and a broader outline of subjects they have perhaps seen in too much detail to understand fully.'

K. J. Glaser

Directory of Schools—continued

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Ideal country estate offering all modern educational activities.

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has reopened for the time being at:

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Usual staff retained. Boys & girls of all ages from 4-16. Fine airy house on the shore in safe neighbourhood.

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CRANEMOOR COLLEGE
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FOREST SCHOOL, REEPHAM, NORFOLK. Co-educational, Boarding, 5-18, Open-air life. 40 acres. Family background : progressive, individual methods ; practical preparation for life, including examinations. Riding. Crafts. Headmaster. Cuthbert Rutter, M.A. interviews London.

CHILDREN'S HOUSE for 12 girls under 15, attached Llandaff School, Cambridge. Progressive Preparatory. High standard without pressure or competition. Individual attention. Musical training, handwork, games. Moderate fees.—Miss Tilley, M.A.

NEW HERRLINGEN SCHOOL (recognized by the Board of Education) welcomes English children to grow up with German children in a home-like atmosphere. Principal, Anna Essinger, M.A., Otterden, Kent. Tel., Eastling 6.

PINEHURST, Goudhurst. On the beautiful Kentish Weald. Progressive School. Co-educational 3-12 years. Sound education. Crafts. Riding. Food Reform Diet. Sun and Air Bathing. Excellent health record. Miss M. B. Reid, Principal.

CHINTHURST SCHOOL, Tadworth, Surrey. Preparatory School for Boys. Pre-Preparatory house for Girls and Boys. Friendly atmosphere. Riding. Swimming Pool. Children from other countries are welcome. Holiday pupils taken. *Apply* Principals.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, Great Missenden, Bucks. Preparatory School for Girls and Small Boys on modern lines. Individual attention. Thorough musical training. Recognized by Board of Education. Entire charge taken if parents abroad. Froebel and Graduate Staff. *Apply* Principal.

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For Children from 3-12 years

Education on modern lines. All work and play in open air. A few boarders taken in Principal's house in school grounds.

Full particulars from the Principal,

Constance M. A. KELLY, N.F.U. (Higher Cert.)

THE MOUNT SCHOOL, Mill Hill, N.W.7. An attempt is made to keep the school in touch with real everyday things. Principal, Mary Macgregor, B.A.(Lond.), Cambridge Teacher's Diploma.

LONG DENE SCHOOL, Jordans, Beaconsfield. Open-air Day and Boarding School for Boys and Girls from three years to School Certificate. Twenty miles from London. Modern methods. Headmaster : Leslie England, B.A.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Success and Failure

Marion Milner

**Author of 'The Human Problems in Schools',
visiting psychologist to the Girls' Public Day
School, Trust Schools and others**

RECENTLY there has been much research into the problems of mental growth which face every child in the first few years of life, and this research has brought to light facts which have a very important bearing upon the later problems of school life. Outstanding amongst these facts are the intense emotional reverberations which result from the helplessness and dependence of infancy, and the great need in a child to come to believe in something good inside him, something which will enable him both to avoid hurt to those on whom he is dependent, and also gradually to satisfy his own needs by independent effort and skill.

Clearly it is much easier for a small child to be destructive than constructive, easier to tear a hole than to darn it, easier to break a plate than to glue it together, easier to spoil than to create; even with the best intentions his own lack of muscular control must often lead to disaster. But also his intentions are not always of the best; there are times when the inevitable 'No, you mustn't do that' of adults arouses rages of frustration, rages in which he wishes to hurt those who hurt him; and since the study of the make-believe play of very young children shows that he does not yet know that thoughts are not as real as things, he is liable to feel he has actually hurt the person he wished to hurt, hurt him by the magic of his angry thoughts. As a result of all this he apparently comes to have very deep-seated doubts about his capacity for goodness, for being worthy of the love of

those on whom he is dependent, or for being able ever to learn all the tremendously difficult tasks which would make him less completely dependent on them.

It is interesting that, in adult life, we sometimes use the phrase 'make good' as synonymous with 'being successful'. In school a child has the opportunity of learning to 'make good' by acquiring all kinds of skills and mental riches. Usually he is first of all offered the opportunity of finding things out for himself by learning to read; but also many other ways of escape are offered from the primary feelings of helplessness and destructiveness and unsatisfied need, some offered officially as part of the school routine, some unofficially as part of the contacts with other children. Gradually he learns control of hand and eye so that he can make things that he wants, enjoy games of skill, or put his thoughts down on paper; and he also learns to make friends, allies who will help him to feel less at the mercy of adults. But if he is to achieve capacity for the prolonged effort that learning these skills requires, he must have some belief that effort really will bring him the reassurance of his own goodness which he so sorely needs.

And this is where the standards set by adults so often play havoc with the growth of the child's belief in himself. Parents so often cannot believe that the clumsy beginnings will really blossom into skills, they become impatient with the slowness of growth, and continually compare their child's progress with that of their friend's children, who are probably

differently placed and differently endowed, so that the comparison is quite unfair. Or in school, the child's best efforts, which are right and suitable for him, may not be good enough in comparison with others, or with the teacher's expectations, so his sums are continually marked 'wrong', and his writing books become full of red marks against spelling mistakes ; so his inner doubts about himself are strengthened, he feels full of badness because what he produces is always criticized as bad, and sometimes he seems to come to feel that he might as well just *be* bad, since no amount of effort seems to make much difference. For instance, in one case a whole form of dull ten-year-olds were reported as having become thoroughly rude and quite out-of-hand. Investigation showed that the mistress who had recently come to teach them had not realized that they were an intellectually limited group. She had been marking their work with great severity, and also setting problems that were beyond them. The children had apparently come to feel that if she did not believe in them they certainly did not believe in themselves, and they expressed the deep anxiety this roused in them by a defensive attack on adults and refusal to accept any standards at all.

Many children, after years of working at tasks that are quite beyond them, rather naturally lose heart altogether and seem to become incapable of any intellectual effort at all, since this kind of effort has not provided them with any way out of their anxieties, but has only exaggerated these through repeated bad marks and obvious failure. Some relapse into a listless coma in school, others try alternative methods for releasing their inner tensions. The child of active and assertive temperament seems most often to try 'flight to action', since sitting still and learning does not seem to bring results ; he sets himself another goal—to be as much nuisance as possible and get the attention which he cannot win by good work, through being naughty. Others turn their energies to being good at games, or to practical activities ; amongst adolescent girls, some discover that they can win a sense of their own worth through the admiration of their boy friends, and so concentrate on problems of clothes, cosmetics and style of hairdressing ; but

in many girls' schools these alternative methods of 'making good' are often frowned on by the staff, thus increasing the girl's sense of guilt and consequent need for the reassurance that her bodily attractiveness brings.

Because children are very clever at hiding their feelings of failure, sometimes even from themselves, teachers often do not realize how deep these feelings are. One intelligent thirteen-year-old girl who was doing very bad work, was asked what she liked best of all the things she did in school ; she said 'Games and Gym, because you can make slips and not get big crosses put against the mistakes. If you can't do a certain thing it does not matter so much as it does in ordinary lessons.' She also said that she worried 'when the report is sent home and I wonder if it is another bad one'. Yet the staff all considered that she was 'tough' and quite impervious to their criticism. Thus in many children, particularly those whose home circumstances have not been very satisfactory, failures in school seem to stir up the most profound doubts about themselves, doubts that must be settled at all costs, either by immediate flight to some other activity where success is more possible, or retreat into a world of compensating phantasy achievement.

There seems to be an all-or-none tendency in the confused kind of thinking we most of us indulge in, about feelings that matter too much to be easily put into words. This shows very markedly in attitudes towards failure or success. Something that is not a startling success becomes then a complete failure, and a small mistake is liable to be felt as an overwhelming disaster. Thus the thirteen-year-old mentioned above said that she disliked geography most of all her lessons, 'Because I never can get full marks' ; also a six-year-old, when faced with what the school called an 'examination' in spelling, said she did not want to go to school that day, and showed marked signs of anxiety. Trying to reassure her, the mother made a shot in the dark and said 'You know we'd love you just as much even if you didn't get your answers right' ! ; the child said incredulously 'Would you ?' and then went quite happily off to school. In another instance an intelligent adolescent girl could not bring herself to work up to her real capacity, appar-

ently because there were one or two girls more intelligent than herself in the form, and she felt that if she could not beat them, be actually the best, then it was safer not to try at all, for then she at least saved herself from testing out her capacities; she was able to hug to herself the reassuring thought that it was only because she did not try that she was not the best. For her also it seemed that to be 'not the best' was to be utterly the worst, and that was too terrible to contemplate.

There is apparently another way of dealing with the inner feeling of lack, of unworthiness, which is in one sense the opposite of the passionate struggle to 'make good', and yet is quite distinct from the listless acquiescence in failure shown by those children who have simply retreated from their problems. It is the acceptance of the fact of 'not having', 'not being able to do', on a reality basis, in fact, acceptance of *degrees* of success and failure, the realization that only a few people can be startling successes but that does not mean that there are no satisfactions to be had for anybody else. This realization seems to come, as a result of gradual growth, just in so far as the child is helped to face his status problems detachedly, and is able to bring his reflections about these into commonsense terms, by means of putting them into words. But in so far as his parents, not having realistically faced their own worries over problems of status, greet his failures and mistakes either with angry resentment or with a pained silence of disappointment, he is liable to feel it is all something too terrible to be thought about; just as in the catastrophes of infancy, when he broke things, dirtied things, spilt things, and could not tell from the adults' shocked expression or reproof what frightful harm he might not have done.

A reflection of the parents' difficulties was markedly shown in a girl of sixteen, brilliant and successful in almost everything she tried, who was filled with intolerable fits of rage and anxiety when another girl was given first place in a certain subject. When interviewed she spoke passionately of her determination to be a startling success in life. Her family background showed a history of great ups and downs in material welfare, both the mother and father having marked gifts that had not brought them

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By MARION MILNER

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the recognition they deserved. The girl herself seemed to be trying to shut the thought of failure entirely from her mind, with the result that the smallest setback seemed to her like complete disaster. Actually she showed literary gifts and hoped to study literature at the University; but she admitted, during the interview, that she had no appreciation of the literature of tragedy, and began to realize, apparently for the first time, how her mental life was being impoverished by her own and her family's difficulty in recognising the value of any other experience than that of excelling.

In this girl the failure to bring her pre-occupations about success into the daylight of commonsense reflection had led to obsessive concentration on being first in real achievements in school. Others, whose mental gifts give them no hope whatever of being first, seem to seek to escape from intolerable doubts about themselves in ways that are more remote from real achievement. For instance, one girl of fourteen only emerged from a habitual listlessness when bringing herself to admit that her

greatest desire and only ambition was to possess a red racing car.

Other irrational confusions of thought are shown often in the over active child for whom quietness and sitting still and submitting to others seem all to become associated into one vague whole of failure, emptiness, even of not being alive at all, annihilation, as, for instance, one child whose mother said of her, 'I think she feels she's not alive if she's not lively'. With some girls this feeling is expressed in an admitted wish to be a boy, 'Because boys do such much more exciting things'; in others there is only a repudiation of all the traditionally feminine and domestic activities.

It is interesting to compare adolescents in terms of their ability to admit their failures. A child who is doing well in some lessons can usually admit to doing badly in others; but many children who are doing badly in all their lessons seem to find the fact too difficult to admit; it touches the roots of their belief in themselves too deeply. When the question is one of friends, the difficulty of admitting lack is, quite naturally, far greater; the isolated and solitary child frequently says that she has plenty of friends in school, although perhaps no particular friend; for this question probably touches on the primal fear of having forfeited the parents' love, of not being worthy of love at all.

There is another aspect of the question of aims imposed by staff or parents; the traditional wording of school reports implies the assumption that success in any activity is the result of conscious and deliberate effort towards a set goal: for instance, such phrases as 'Has tried hard this term and improved', 'Must try harder and set herself a higher standard of neatness', and so on. Parents also continually hold up before their children standards of neatness, helpfulness and the like, assuming that if they can spur the child to try hard enough, then the goal will be achieved. This procedure assumes that all mental qualities are developed through conscious effort towards a standard, and it ignores the part played by maturation.

Actually we do not know very much about the conditions most favourable for maturation of many of the subtler mental and moral qualities, but what we do know is that excessive

emphasis on standards can sometimes interfere with or actually stunt the growth of these desirable capacities. Thus a child of extremely conscientious, kind, hard-working parents, who herself consciously wishes to be all the things they hope for her, finds in fact that she is being criticized on all sides for being lazy, listless, secretive and solitary. Conversation with the girl herself shows her overwhelming sense of inadequacy and bewilderment at discovering that she cannot by mere trying acquire all the virtues expected of her; conversation with the parents shows also that they are at their wits' end to know why years of devoted care, with admirable precept and example, should have produced something so different from what they had intended. But this conversation also showed that they had had no real belief in processes of inner growth, as distinct from purposive striving after an external ideal; also they had never guessed what deep despair of her own goodness had been aroused in their child, despair at the contrast between her own natural childish weaknesses, and the heroic example of their devoted behaviour.

TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS FOR MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES.

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Applications are invited from trained social workers for scholarships of varying amounts up to £200 for a one-session course of training for the Mental Health Services. The Course starts in September 1940.

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Further particulars may be obtained from:

**The Secretary, London School of Economics,
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Letters should be clearly marked "Mental Health Course."

Children and their Mothers

D. W. Winnicott

Director of the Child Department,
Institute of Psycho-Analysis

IN a letter from a woman public servant who has done a great deal for toddlers I find this: '... from fifteen years' experience I am convinced that for children from 2 to 5, nursery schools with properly trained teachers—and enough of them—are far better than the child being with its mother... they need care and companionship from 2 to 5 and most mothers may give too much of one or the other or both....' Is this true?

The question of relationship between children and their mothers is one which cannot be too closely studied, and the problems connected with evacuation can be turned to use if they can force us to further study.

The subject is a big one, but certain things stand out clearly, one of which would be that the younger the child the more danger there is in separating him from his mother.

There are two ways of stating this which at first appear to be very different from each other. One is that the younger the child the less his ability to keep the idea of a person alive in himself; that is to say, unless he sees that person or has tangible evidence of her existence within x minutes, hours or days, that person is for him dead.

A boy of eighteen months was just able to tolerate his father's absence because he could take a postcard his father sent him on which he had written some familiar sign and weep over it while going to sleep. A few months earlier he would not have been able to do even this, and his father then on returning would have been as one risen from the dead.

The other way of putting this has nothing to do with age, but has to do with depression. Depressive people of any age characteristically find it difficult to keep alive the idea of those whom they love, even perhaps when they are living in the same room with them. It would be unnecessary here to try to connect up these two different ways of putting the same thing.

Uninstructed parents may intuitively recognize the importance of this and similar human qualities, and yet authorities who are

responsible for such big things as the evacuation of children are not incapable of neglecting them.

An ordinary working-class father writes:

'I am replying on behalf of my wife to your letter of 4th December.

'She has evacuated to Carpenders Park with John (age 5) and his younger brother, Philip. She says John appears to be quite happy and healthy.

'I see them every week-end and John seemed completely contented until very recently. Now he is insistent about seeing his grandmother, *i.e.* my mother. She has evacuated to Dorset but may return in the near future. I have promised him he shall see her, if and when she returns....'

Here are notes of a hospital consultation dated December 12th, in the course of which appears the expressed opinion of an ordinary working-class London mother.

TONY BANKS : Aged $4\frac{1}{2}$.

Mrs. Banks brought Tony and his sister Anne, aged 3, being glad that I was still willing to share responsibility for decisions with her in spite of the hospital having closed. The main decision at the moment is in regard to evacuation. She and the two children went to Northampton at the outbreak of war. They were unhappy in a small billet where they all had to sleep in one bed. They were as much in the town there as at home and they felt they had all the disadvantages of evacuation without the advantages. After a fortnight they changed to a billet which has proved very satisfactory, except that Tony is in bed with his mother. Anne has her own cot. When the father goes down he sleeps in the bed with his wife and his son.

The Banks family is a very happy one. The father is very fond of his children and they of him. He himself had a happy childhood, the only son of a very lovable mother. Mrs. Banks was one of six and her childhood was happy enough except that she had a very strict father. She feels that she never really knew happiness until she was married, since when she has given herself to her husband and children.

She feels that this present period of her life is the important period where the children are young and respond so much to every detail of good management. Her problem then is to avoid losing what she feels to be the best of life out of fear of something that may never come. She feels that it would be logical to go out of London for a few months but

not for three years. She and her husband have the double need of each other, sexual and friendly, and Mr. Banks visits them every week-end, although this leaves him exactly 1/- out of his wages to spend on himself: he neither drinks nor smokes and does not feel badly off. Mrs. Banks says that he must come down and see them once a week *because they are small and if he stays away longer they fret or, worse still, forget*. Once his father had to get into the train quickly and Tony said, 'Daddy didn't cuddle me enough before he went' and sobbed his heart out. Mr. Banks is also upset if he does not see his family regularly.

The children ask such a lot of questions. 'Where is Nanny?' (that is mother's mother), 'Where is Auntie?' so that she decided to bring the children up for a week to take them around to see their relations. This has worked very well, but she felt that if she had left it longer the children would have become puzzled and unable to remake contact satisfactorily. They are all going back to be in the billet by special request at Christmas time, but she feels that it is likely that soon after Christmas on weighing things up she will decide to come home. The billet is obviously almost ideal, but Mrs. Banks says that however nearly ideal it is it is not the same as one's own home.

When I asked her about Tony and his sleeping in bed with both of them when his father visits them, she first of all said that he is always asleep and so never witnesses anything. She says that she always tests him first by talking to him and seeing that he is deeply asleep. Then she said once he woke up—his father must have knocked him—and he said, 'Mum, what is Dad moving up and down for?' and she said, 'Oh, he is just rubbing his legs, he is so cold', whereupon he went to sleep again. But in the day time he asked a great number of questions, chiefly about the real war. He says to his sister, 'Hush, you must be quiet now, it is the news', and then he insists on listening to the news and asking his mother all about the points he doesn't understand. For instance, when a ship sinks how do they let the wireless people know that it is sinking. Doesn't the wireless operator go down with the ship. This interest in the news, of course, involves his learning daily about the death of men and no doubt the mother was right in linking his interest in the news with his interest in the sexual intercourse which he is forced to deal with, at any rate in his fantasy, and perhaps in consciousness.

Going with his forwardness in intellectual development is his inability to dress himself; he cannot do up the back buttons of his trousers or his shoe buttons, and he cannot open the lavatory door. In eating, too, he is very slow, not only with putting food to his mouth but also in completing the act of mastication. He is one of those children who retain food in the mouth, chewing and chewing; sometimes his mother eventually has to take a piece of meat out of his mouth after it has been masticated for an hour or more.

Tony and his sister are happy together and will

not hear of being parted. They quarrel if left quite alone, their play is imaginative but tending to deal with present day real affairs such as ambulances, A.R.P. shelters. They play doctors and mothers, and they reconstruct families having tea, and his particular game is doctors and nurses, which he will play endlessly and enjoy.

Father makes it his job to take the children right off their mother's hands on Sunday. This is a treat that they all look forward to. He is very good with them, takes them walking, which they love better than riding in buses and he consults them as to where they want to go and what they want to see, and is clearly at home with children.

This boy has been coming to my department at hospital since three years old. He was well until his sister was born when he was 18 months old, whereupon he became violently jealous, especially when his mother was feeding the baby. He would rush up to his mother and pull down her jumper and try and get the breast for himself, or he would stand by furious when his mother was changing the baby's napkins or preparing her cot. His jealousy of the new baby slowly turned to love of her and great pleasure in playing with her. When he was two he had an attack of diarrhoea. The second big event in his life was diphtheria when he was about 3. Soon after this it was noted that he developed the feeding inhibition which has persisted to the present day, although as a baby he was nice and greedy. He developed liability to definite depression. The social visitor found that he had been made a lot of as a baby, although perhaps not abnormally so, and that when the little girl came his father took him over while his mother was fond of the new one. At present he is in good physical health.

Harm done by separation of child from mother is illustrated by the following case history:

Eddie, aged 21 months, is the first and only child of ordinary intelligent parents, the father being in business and the mother having been till her marriage a professional musician.

At 18 months he slept for the first time in the same room with his parents, when he was away on holiday with them. He would not go off to sleep unless his mother cuddled him. After being lifted out at 10 o'clock he grizzled but went off to sleep fairly easily. On and off during this holiday he had to be cuddled because of being too excited to go to sleep on his own. This was noted as unusual for him and put down to the fact that he had his father, of whom he is very fond, all day. At this stage there was never any difficulty in quietening him, the only thing noted was that he had to be quietened.

After this holiday the family returned home, but in a week war broke out so off he went with his mother to his mother's mother, father being left to look after himself. He now slept in his mother's room. At this stage he started to need more nursing,

seeming to be upset by the disturbance in his parents' lives, but he could always be reassured. After ten days it was considered that he knew his grandmother well enough to be left with her, so the mother returned to her home to look after her husband, and for one reason and another stayed away as long as a month. She was then written for, the child had become poorly, cutting teeth, vaguely ill. So his mother went and found him feverish and with painful gums. He is cutting his last four first teeth. She wondered at his being so upset at his cutting teeth since he had never before been upset when his teeth came. The thing which struck her most was that *when she came he did not know her*. This was distressing to him and a real shock to her, but she patiently waited and in the morning was rewarded by his being able to recognize her. At the same time he became very much better in physical health and became able to sleep well, he also enjoyed talking to his mother a great deal in his own way. It seemed that his condition changed as he became able to recognize her, so that it was difficult to believe that he had really been suffering from a purely physical illness. After three or four days he was quite well and happy and travelled home. When he got home he could not at first go to his own room as a friend was using it, so he slept in his parents' room. He knew his father immediately and knew where he was, looking around all the old haunts with squeals of delight and pleasure. He was very happy to be home, and slept well the first night. The next night he slept less well and this sleeplessness increased gradually to a serious symptom. After one week he went back to his own room, which he likes, and for three nights there slept better, but *then started sleeplessness again*. The degree of this symptom eventually brought the mother to me. He would stand up and scream for four hours, the screaming got beyond anger to terror and beyond terror to despair. The mother, who is sensible and motherly, recognized that she must do something about what was evidently not simply a matter of temper. The only way she could manage was to nurse him until he slept, but even if she got him soundly asleep, if *she got up to go he always woke as she reached the door*. Firmness was of no use, nor was verbal explanation that all was well. When the mother in the determination not to be mastered matched her own determination against his the final result was exhaustion on both sides with no improvement in the situation when they had both recovered. When she refused to give in however much he cried he eventually started screaming for daddy, having given up hope of his mother. After half an hour she went in and found him in an awful state, flushed and wet and incontinent of faeces. This developed into sobbing until eventually he sunk into his mother's arms and slept worn out. In an hour or two the tussle started again. A general practitioner was called in and said he was teething and advised aspirin. For three nights this worked like a charm and then suffering started again, only worse. All this time

he was happy in the day time, not naughty, affectionate, obedient, and able to play by himself and with his father and mother. A compromise was arrived at by his mother letting him sleep in his pram in the parents' room. This gave him permission to be there but without the implication of permanence. The mother was by this time in a state of indecision and badly needing help. She said: 'I can't always be determined, even if I ought to, because the people in the flat above are badly disturbed by the crying.' There was urgency in the clearing up of this problem because in a month's time the family is due to move to a house in the suburbs, in which case he will lose not only the nursery he has known, but also the woman who helps in the house and who understands him very well, but who at this stage was unable to produce in the child a state of mind which would allow his mother out of the room when he was asleep. The mother said she felt in despair, she felt as if all her training of the child had gone to the wind. If she smacked his head and said 'naughty' he smacked himself, seeming to say that he knew all about it anyway and she need not rub it in, and he had taken to grinding his teeth.

Investigation showed that Eddie could not easily meet his mother again because in the time of separation from her he had hated her without being able to get from her presence and smile the reassurance that she could remain alive and friendly in spite of his hate.

The fact that the trouble was resolved with help does not alter the other fact that the child did not easily recover from the trauma of separation from his mother.

Without in any way denying that physical harm may come to children in air raids, and without minimizing the harm that may result from their witnessing fear in grown-ups, or actual destruction, one can usefully go on putting forward the commonplace that there is more in the family unit than considerations of comfort and convenience. In fact the family unit provides a reassurance that the infant cannot really do without, and the toddler cannot miss it without interference with his emotional development and without impoverishment of his personality and character.

TRAINING OFFERED

A school in the North of England offers a year's training either in matron's work or in nursery or Montessori method—in return for services. A young girl waiting to enter training college is the kind of candidate suggested. Write N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

Where Are We Going?

Alicia C. Percival

University College, Hull

Now that the evacuation is more than four months old, and some, though not enough, adjustments have been made so as to enable schools at both ends to carry on, it is time for us to sit down and think out what this move really means.

It is said to be a habit of our nation to act first and think of the consequences afterwards—a habit which may cause much avoidable distress, stigmatized in the phrase ‘muddling through’. Yet in English educational policy it seems to have been an invariable rule—we do the thing first and afterwards discuss its implications. Perhaps if we are lucky we find out in the course of the discussion why we took that path and whither it must lead.

A brief survey of the last hundred years or so shows this in every field of education. My Lords of the Treasury (whoever, in 1833, they may have been) when they gave the first state grant for the building of schools, never realized that their action was the first of a series which was to build up ‘A National System of Public Education’—a phrase first employed officially, I believe, in the preamble to the Fisher Act. The full character and purpose of the elementary schools established in 1870 was not made manifest till it found expression in Morant’s code of 1904. To look in another direction, when the Medical Inspection Act was passed in the first decade of this century, no one imagined that a host of school clinics would be set up under a school medical service to remedy the deficiencies exposed by this inspection. The Junior Technical Schools, so highly approved by the Spens Committee, discussed in the Hadow Report and in the Board’s Educational Pamphlets No. 83 and 111, were among the ‘experiments in post-primary education thrown up’ without a thought of the important part they might play in the national education system. Even the development of activities outside the classroom—the holiday camps, the school visits, the attendance of seventy thousand school children

at a jubilee drive—are spontaneous and for the most part unrecorded events; yet without the experience gained from their organization the present evacuation scheme would have been impossible.

One thing that stands out in all this is the gradual weakening of parental responsibility. Through the school, the community first undertook the instruction of children in the three R’s; then it paid attention to their health; it opened the path to industry; it provided pleasure and social education in the largest sense. If we are to take into account the work of nursery schools, this responsibility is in some cases being undertaken for a child from the time it is two years old. All these were originally functions of the family—occasionally the family helped by philanthropic individuals or organizations, but as a rule what was not done by parents was not done at all.

Now the state is taking over the last and most elementary duty of the family—the children’s safety—on the very reasonable grounds, as stated in Parliament, that if these measures of safety had not been taken members of the Government would have been blamed, and rightly so. Without in any way criticizing this view one cannot but wonder whether the full significance of the action has been understood. It appears that in the last resort the very life of a child is the concern of the state rather than of the family. True, the evacuation is voluntary—just as attendance at clinics is voluntary, but in the course of time a good deal of pressure has been applied to parents, in the child’s own interest. That the revelations made as a result of the evacuation itself will produce a further development of the work of the School Medical Service, and an increasing assumption of state responsibility, is not to be doubted.

Perhaps even when we consider the principle underlying this new undertaking, that of providing safety, many would agree with it; others would regard it as a necessary answer

to state control in other countries. But those who while allowing it as an inevitable necessity recognize the underlying danger, will not cease to lay stress on those methods (from the

system of family allowances to the teaching of mothercraft) by which the community instead of 'helping' the family can enable the family to help itself.

Recorders and School Music

Fred Fowler

**The Modern School,
Silsden, Keighley, Yorks.**

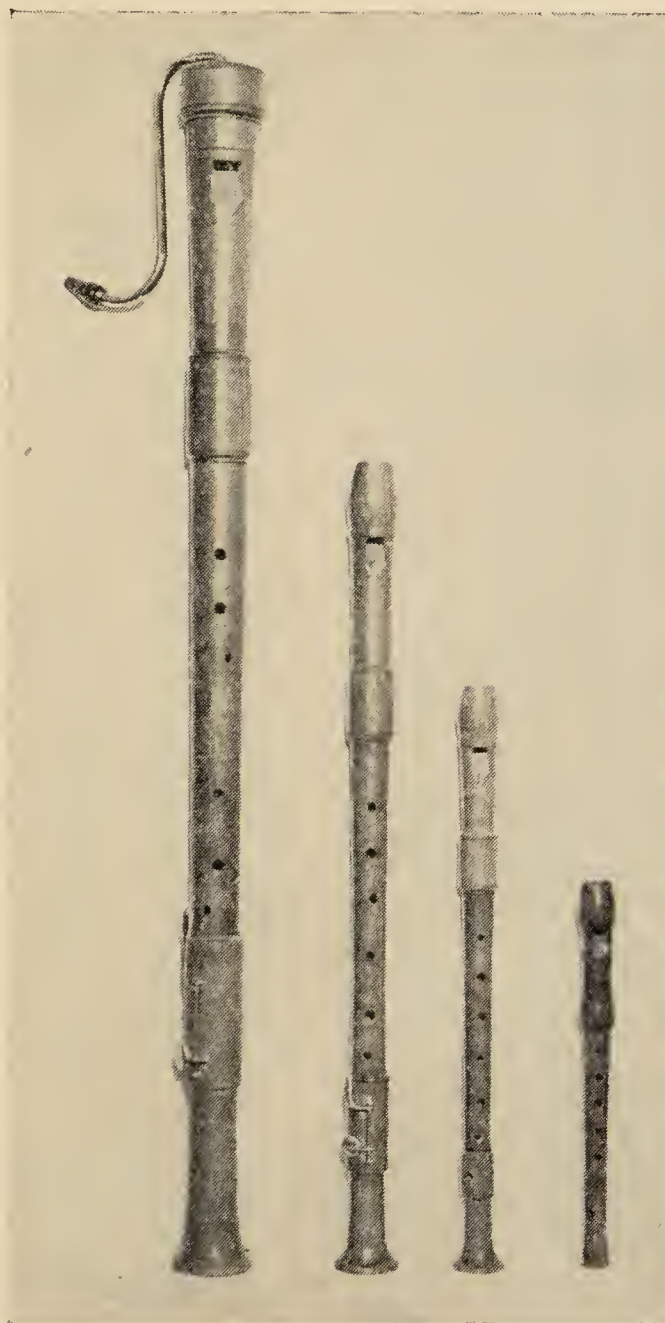
THE parcel arrived containing four 'descant' recorders, and very soon three girls and one boy were being initiated into the secrets of fingering. Looking back, nearly two years, it does not seem to have been a very daring venture—four recorders in a school of more than two hundred children—until it is remembered that we, the teachers, were also comparative strangers to the instrument. We knew of no other school in which recorders had been introduced, and we had to contend with the difficulty of having very little time which could be devoted to such work.

The reader may wonder why we decided to introduce this particular instrument. After becoming convinced that the introduction of some instrument was essential in order to give vitality to our school music we spent several months in considering which instrument to adopt. There appeared to be three possibilities—the violin, the bamboo-pipe and the recorder. There were two important objections to the violin. We regarded it as too expensive for introduction in large numbers, but the main disadvantage was our conclusion that not sufficient progress could be made during the short time pupils attend a senior elementary school. We were more hopeful of the inexpensive bamboo-pipe, but after making and playing

several we felt that too much time would be occupied in the making and the compass of the instruments was far too limited. After buying a specimen descant recorder we had no hesitation in deciding this was the instrument most suited to our purpose. In addition to being inexpensive, we found that the tone was good, rapid progress could be made, and a chromatic compass of more than two octaves was available. Moreover, a recorder is not a

toy but a serious musical instrument. References to recorders can be found in history and literature as far back as the twelfth century, although the period of their great popularity in this country was that covered by the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Henry VIII played recorders, Shakespeare mentions them in his plays, Pepys in his diary tells of practising one, and Handel, along with other famous musicians, wrote works especially for the recorder.

To-day we have seventy or eighty children practising upon recorders, including several who play the larger members of the consort—treble, tenor and bass. In addition we have a fairly long 'waiting-list'. The local authority has generously supplied us with a small number of instruments, but we find that the majority of our children prefer to possess their own,



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A.L.

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bringing a few coppers each week until paid for. Week after week they have met to play together and to learn new music. Week after week they have taken their instruments home to practise. Teachers, inspectors and professional musicians have come to hear the playing. In addition to broadcasting, we have given concerts in local halls and demonstrations in Technical Schools and Training Colleges, and we feel now that sufficient time has been spent to justify our sitting back and taking stock of this innovation. From musical and educational points of view we must ask ourselves whether the time and money spent have been justified and, if so, whether it is desirable to extend this work still further.

As we think of all the branches of musical education our answers to such queries reveal nothing but praise for these little instruments. Rhythm Training and Sight Reading have progressed rapidly. This is only to be expected when it is realised that all our music is read from staff notation, and the players read four or five times as much music as the non-players. In addition, the majority realize for the first time the purpose behind the sight-reading practised regularly in schools—if they cannot read, they cannot play. Aural-training also benefits, for part-playing demands keen listening as it is very easy to play out of tune.

It may be doubted at first whether the introduction of recorders can give any stimulus to the song-singing lesson. We have found that it does, and that the interest shown is much keener. The players discover that, not only can they sing the pieces, but they can also play them and put descants and second parts to them, and they delight to do these things. They delight also in playing with the percussion class or in accompanying the country dancing. In connection with the latter, the use of recorders solves the problem

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of having no accompaniment and also makes dancing in the air a distinct possibility.

Finally, we must consider if our recorder playing is helpful in the formation of a taste for, and an understanding of, music. This, we are told in the *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*, is the main aim of our music teaching. Many authorities now believe that the ideal method for musical 'appreciation', as this is often loosely called, is letting the children make good music and not just listen to it, and we have found that the recorder is a most suitable instrument for such work. The children are constantly playing good music, some of which was originally written for performance on recorders. Bach to them is no longer just a name or a gramophone record, for they can play some of his short compositions and, what is more important, enjoy playing them. It must also be remembered that the recorder, whilst a serious musical instrument in itself, is also a bridge leading to orchestral work, for

the clarinet has very similar fingering. A point to be noted is that our players were not chosen by ability. A big proportion were very average children, some definitely backward. It is now true to say, however, that as far as music is concerned, the majority of them have left our non-players far behind, and we should welcome the possibility of giving an instrument to each child in the school.

EDGAR HUNT, the well-known authority on and teacher of the recorder, offers a new service to recorder players and all interested in the present revival of this old-English instrument.

EDGAR HUNT'S Starting February 1940
RECORDER NEWS-LETTER

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An Arithmetical Disability : Weakness in Problem Solving

S. H. Cracknell, M.Sc., Ph.D.

Headmaster,
Dalmain Road L.C.C. School

SOME disabilities in arithmetical work are restricted to a small percentage of children while others are more widespread in their incidence. Chief among these latter is the inability to solve problems, the negative trait which leads many people to say, almost with pride, 'I am no good at arithmetic'. Usually this means 'I cannot solve problems.'

There seems to be a notion abroad that skill in mere figuring is a worth-while capability even though it be not associated with the power to apply the skill in non-mechanical situations. In reality mechanical proficiency which does not issue in ability to draw the correct conclusion from numerical or quantitative data, is acquired at the expense of a lamentable misuse of time. It is difficult to find any justification for a course in 'arithmetic' which provides a tool of whose uses the possessor has no conception.

Should we not as teachers consider ourselves to have failed if our pupils show utter incompetence when invited to solve numerical problems? What are the factors which predispose a pupil to such incompetence?

First stands that which seems to underlie all inefficiency and ineffectiveness—fear. It is one of the commonest experiences that many pupils seem, on passing from mechanical to problematic work, to pass also from reasonably self-confident individuals to hesitating and incompetent tiros. They appear afraid to face up to the problems, knowing that they will probably fail. Feeling and dreading their inadequacy they succeed only in emphasizing it.

To what extent is this unfortunate condition due to faulty teaching?

For a first answer to this question we must go back to those early days in which the child began to explore the mysteries of number.

Was he allowed to explore or was he ‘taught’ ? It is probable that in the response to this query is to be found the major cause of future arithmetical success or failure.

It must be recognized that a child’s number sense *develops*, and teaching, to have any positive value, must wait on such development. Any effort to instruct in matters which are beyond the stage reached by the maturing child will of necessity be pernicious. Yet there are not wanting those who make this endeavour. What is the result ? Clearly that the child is impressed by the difficulty of the material. He cannot understand it, so consequently he begins to be overawed by its obscurity and to fear that he cannot master it. Naturally if the foundations are thus laid on insecurity there must be a cumulative effect ending in real and far-spreading inefficiency. All who are attempting to grapple with children who are backward in arithmetic discover that the first and most urgent of their curative measures is the restoration of the pupil’s self-confidence.

Further, a child does not necessarily understand because he is instructed, but rather because he discovers for himself. Given the simple apparatus and the very minimum of guidance, a child will, as he matures, thoroughly grasp both the ‘composition of numbers’ and the fact that there are certain processes which can be carried out with them. By the time he has reached the developmental age of seven he will be ready for the beginning of formal instruction in those processes which he already grasps in broad outline, using for the purpose the numbers with whose constitution and significance he is already acquainted. There is little chance of failure or of the encouragement of feelings of inefficiency if this course be adopted. It would be an outstanding advantage if all formal instruction could be delayed until the child has reached the developmental age of seven, although much incidental work can be done by judicious suggestion and by the provision of progressively advancing apparatus.

So much for the origin of the ‘feelings of inferiority’ with which many scholars face the problem paper.

Again, is not this attitude encouraged by the fact that the examples are called ‘problems’.

Why not call them ‘puzzles’ ? There are few children who will not wrestle with a puzzle ; call it a problem and the zest is gone.

An analysis of the causes of failure in solving problems or puzzles throws much light upon supplementary factors emphasizing this initial and artificially generated fear attitude.

Here is a summary of the results of one such enquiry :

<i>Cause.</i>	<i>Percentage of Failures due to this cause.</i>
Lack of comprehension of problems	45.2 per cent.
Lack of ability to use fundamental processes	23.6 per cent.
Lack of knowledge of significance of processes	15.3 per cent.
Careless arrangement	3.1 per cent.
Lack of interest	3.1 per cent.
Ignorance of ‘Tables’	2.5 per cent.
Uncertain causes	6.2 per cent.

The very large percentage of failures due to lack of comprehension of the problem is in accord with the opinion of most teachers who realize that a problem is not solely a puzzle in arithmetic but frequently much more of a puzzle in English. A child’s inability to read with understanding is a most fruitful source of failure to reach a successful solution. Training in such reading is therefore essential.

To contribute to this training certain measures may be taken.

(1) From the earliest stages in formal work examples may be set ‘in words’ so that children do not feel overawed when later they encounter problems so expressed.

(2) These exercises must be carefully graded so that, particularly in the early stages, their meanings are well within the grasp of the children.

(3) There should be frequent class discussion of a selected problem with a view to encouraging the children to achieve its complete comprehension. Such consideration may become habitual and operate when children are working alone.

(4) Children should be given ‘wordy’ problems and instructed to cross out all the words which are not essential to its solution, *e.g.* ‘Mary, Jane, and Alice are three friends. If each of them buys a 2d. slab of plain

chocolate, a $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. bar of chocolate cream and a 3d. toy from Woolworth's, how much do they all spend together?' Clearly the essential facts are: 'Three friends each spent 2d., $1\frac{1}{2}$ d., 3d. How much all together?'

This exercise is not only keenly enjoyed but has a most beneficial effect upon reading with understanding.

Another difficulty encountered is the fact that in many text-books words are used in problems which are both unknown to the children and are also making their first appearance in the book. This is most unfair and loads the balance heavily on the side of failure. Actually the new words may have no bearing upon the solution of the puzzle, but only a child of exceptional ability will see that fact and ignore the word. Research upon this matter has been carried out, and the conclusions drawn may be summarized by saying that there is a complete lack of uniformity in the vocabularies in which the problems are expressed in the various text-books, that the words employed are frequently quite outside the child's range of knowledge and that they often bear no relationship to the importance of the words in the vocabulary of children as ascertained by research. This, of course, is a most unnecessary obstacle and both text-books and examination questions should be critically examined from this point of view.

The second and third causes of failure (*a*) the lack of ability to use fundamental processes and (*b*) the lack of knowledge of the significance of the processes, may be dealt with together as they are probably two effects of the same cause, an undue haste in the initial stages. But as a consideration of this weakness was undertaken in a previous issue of *The New Era*¹ further development is unnecessary here.

Careless arrangement! The word 'arrangement' is too polite. An inspection of some four thousand scholarship papers in arithmetic from a recent examination showed that there were not fifty scripts in the whole number whose writers had made a reasonably successful effort to arrange their work. The solving of a problem should be the conclusion to an orderly and sustained process of thinking. No solution should be accepted unless the teacher

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By F. J. SCHONELL, Ph.D. and
S. H. CRACKNELL, M.Sc., Ph.D.

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is able to follow through from the commencement to the end the train of thought by which that conclusion was reached. Maybe the number of examples worked under this restriction would not reach the customary level, but it must be remembered that arithmetic is not taught to enable children to score marks in an examination but so that they can learn to use a tool evolved for the purpose of exact and methodical thought.

It is surprising to find 'lack of interest' considered to account for only 3.1 per cent. of the failures. Even if we recognize that its effects are spread over some of the other causes as contributory factors, we should still expect to find a somewhat greater percentage of failure due specifically to this source. Leaving aside the points which have already been dealt with (lack of comprehension, unsuitable vocabulary, ignorance of processes and of their significance) there remains one vital cause for this 'lack of interest'. This is to be found in the unsuitability of the material included in the problems set for solution. The abnormal plumber who fits unusual numbers of taps to a cistern, the peculiar individual who is

¹ January 1940: 'Number', by S. H. Cracknell.

anxious to know the time at which the hands of a clock 'will again be at right angles' and the horses with standardised appetites are fortunately passing from the pages of our text-books and from our examination papers, but there is ample room for the provision of material which in itself will appeal to normal boys and girls.

If, unfortunately, the class text-book does not provide such material, the children can co-operate by making up puzzles to worry their fellows. At first results will be discouraging as the examples will bear a close resemblance to those in the text-books, but after a while, when the knowledge that they are really free to create has taken root, some very valuable suggestions will be forthcoming and will form a nucleus around which the teacher can build his own sets of problems to provide both food for thought and vital interest.

The final cause of failure, 'Lack of knowledge of tables' refers chiefly to what are called 'tables of weights and measures' and the cure is obvious. No child who has been allowed to enjoy himself by playing with one-inch sticks, foot rules, and a yard measure can possibly forget that 12 inches are 1 foot, or that 3 feet make 1 yard. No child provided with scales and weights and allowed freedom to play with them can possibly fail to know for all time that 16 ounces are 1 pound. We are back at the six and seven-year-old stage for to a great extent the practical work or rather the practical play at that period lays the sure foundation for perfect confidence later in the course.

But it will be urged, surely intelligence is needed for solving puzzles. That is perfectly true, but it is equally true that the puzzles can be adjusted to suit the intelligence of the child concerned. It is none the less certain that it is possible to train the children to improve the use they make of their intelligence. The chief difficulty is that the solution of a problem

needs a persistent effort of memory and many of the failures arise through sheer inability to keep in mind the end which is supposed to be reached. This accounts for the fact that many children manage perfectly well the first step in a solution and fail to go further because they have forgotten the purpose with which they set out. Similarly a child who should present an answer in £ s. d. may give one in eggs or yards instead, and for the same reason: he has completely forgotten the object of his search.

It is not however impossible to assist children to overcome this disability. In early stages it is well to insist that the solution desired should be placed at the head of the actual working thus:

Problem. To find the number of eggs.

or *Problem.* To find the area of the rectangle. The child can then compare his conclusion with the object with which he commenced his work. Irrelevant answers can be the objects of the child's own criticism and he can go through his solution to find the place at which he lost his way.

Another helpful suggestion is that the children should be encouraged to visualise the processes detailed in the puzzle. If the situation is thus brought before them as a living activity they will experience much less difficulty in deciding what processes are called for and what is the end of this chain of activities. If the children close their eyes they can picture the series something like this:

'Look, Tom comes into the grocer's shop. He asks for sugar, 9½d., tea 1s. 8d., coffee 7½d., cocoa 6½d. (what kind of sum is being worked?). Now he gives the grocer a 10s. note. The grocer is giving him his change (what kind of sum was the grocer working when he took the change from the till?).

A class which is used to visualising in this way will have less difficulty both in deciding what processes to use and what conclusion has to be reached.

THE NEW ERA—MARCH ISSUE

THE UPROOTED CHILD.....	Susan Isaacs
THE UPROOTED SMALL CHILD.....	John Bowlby
THE DEPRIVED PARENT.....	D. W. Winnicott
THE EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS OF FOSTER PARENTS	Ruth Thomas
PROBLEMS OF THE EVACUATED TEACHER.....	Marion Milner
HOMES FOR DIFFICULT CHILDREN.....	Miss Alcock

A Project in the U.S.A.¹

Lois Knowles

‘**L**OOK how he’s eating !’
‘Watch him taking his bath !’
‘I didn’t know they had feet like *that* !’
‘See how he walks !’

Any of the above pertinent observations from children may be heard, in addition to many others, in an environment which contains pets and living creatures.

Those who work intimately with young children know that most of them are intensely interested in animals, fish, birds, snails, frogs, snakes, and all live things. Living creatures, as well as stories about them, and science apparatus, as well as books on science, should play an important part in every modern school.

All teachers know that if there are no animals at school, they will be brought there by the children. What teacher with any experience whatsoever has not had frogs, snakes, lizards, and other creatures brought to school for her approval? Perhaps her disapproval, more’s the pity! No doubt in most cases the child has made a more intensive study of the animals and has a more specific knowledge of their life habits than the teacher herself. Small wonder that children have been known to criticize a teacher thus: ‘She’s dumb !’

In most situations the animals at school are merely pets, and are treated as such. Recently a study was made which combined the child’s natural interest in animals with a more scientific interest. At the University of Missouri Laboratory School our rats were more than pets; they were *Subjects in Our Experiment*.

How the Experiment Began

The twenty-eight nine-year-olds who were studying food had enjoyed movies on western farming, tropical fruits, salmon fishing, and other pertinent subjects; they had made visits to the bakery, the dairy, and the grocery store; they had discussed the implications of many and varied industries upon their break-

Supervisor in the University Laboratory Schools at the University of Missouri

fasts, lunches, and dinners. They had read dozens of books from the picture-book level to government bulletins. They had studied and even designed labels for food products. They had counted calories and made friends of the vitamins. They had made bread and learned to set a table. They had given a tea for their parents, carefully counting the cost (the benefits were inestimable!). But the crowning achievement of the study was known as *Our Experiment*.

Experiment I

A planned visit to the Home Economics Building on the campus introduced the group to Dr. Bertha Bisbey, Professor of Home Economics at the University of Missouri. Dr. Bisbey explained the needs of the body, the use made of different food elements, and told the children which foods contained these essential elements. She showed them pictures of white rats in various states of health due to planned diets, and finally took them to the laboratory where the white rats were kept. Of course this question followed, ‘Could *we* try an experiment like that?’

Dr. Bisbey, surprised but quickly consenting, promised that as soon as two rats were available, we might have them. After another consultation with her, two diets were decided upon. It was comparatively simple to agree upon a good diet; candy and coffee were changed to cornbread in the deficient diet only after much discussion.

GOOD DIET

$\frac{2}{3}$ ground whole wheat
 $\frac{1}{3}$ milk
2 per cent. salt
Lettuce, carrots, egg, etc.

DEFICIENT DIET

Cornbread

The rats, four weeks old and just weaned, were available on January the eleventh, one weighing 47 and one-half grams, the other 54

¹ Reprinted from *Progressive Education*, December, 1939.

grams. Within a few hours after the children brought them into the room in their wire cages they were christened *Pro* and *Con* and their names were placed on their respective cages.

It was decided that they should be weighed weekly on gram scales and the weights recorded. *Pro* fed off the fat of the land ; in addition to his basic whole wheat and milk diet the children contributed vegetables, eggs, and other titbits. *Con* was fed cornbread which was brought by the children from home.

While the children watched with eagerness for the differences in weight to appear, both rats continued to gain. To our amazement, *Pro* and *Con* were equally lively, fat, and healthy. A broken line graph on which the children recorded the weekly weights clearly brought out the fact that 'poor little *Con*', as he was at first known to the school, was gaining weight almost as rapidly as the more fortunate *Pro*.

After ten weeks another consultation with

Chart I
Growth of *Pro* and *Con*
Experiment I

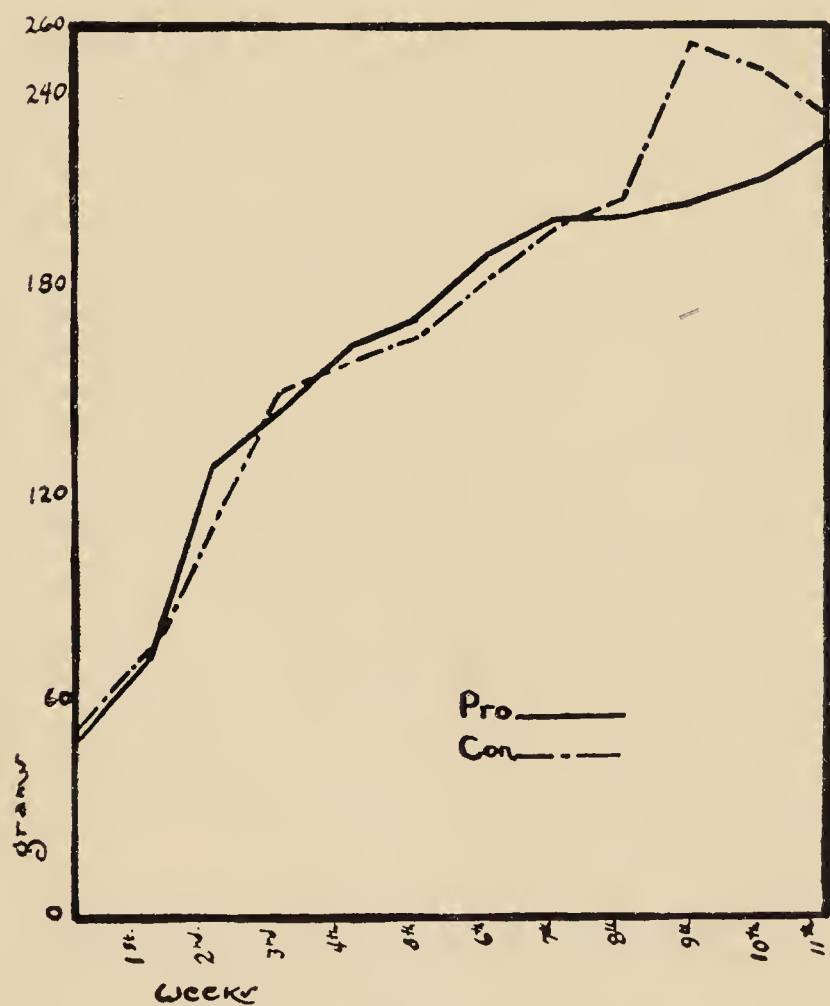


Chart I is a record of the weekly weights in grams of *Pro* and *Con*.

Dr. Bisbey revealed the obvious fact that while *Con* was getting 'just cornbread', brought by the children from their homes, it was, of course, made with eggs, butter, and milk, and no doubt contained all the essential food elements. Dr. Bisbey suggested that the cornbread for *Con* be made by the children at school, and that it contain only cornmeal, lard, sorghum, and salt.

Experiment II

Pro and *Con*, well-fed and tame, were taken back to the Home Economics laboratory by the children and exchanged for *Pro* II and *Con* II, four weeks old April the eleventh. The results of Experiment II were highly gratifying. A new broken line graph to show growth was begun. *Pro* II made normal progress, while *Con* II remained small, looked thin and emaciated, and had a yellowish, ragged coat.

After six weeks of Experiment II, the children felt that the experiment was a success. Comments such as these were now heard :

'I think it's a shame to let *Con* die.'

'I wonder if he would catch up with *Pro* if we started him on a good diet now?'

'How long do you think it would take him to catch up?'

Experiment III

It was the unanimous opinion of the group that *Con* should be given a chance to grow. Even more eagerly than before the children watched the growth of their subjects. As might be expected, *Con* did 'catch up', and actually surpassed *Pro* in weight after four weeks on the good diet. On June the twenty-seventh, the end of the eleventh week of observation, *Pro* II weighed 174 grams and *Con* II weighed 208 grams. The dotted lines in Chart II indicate the period between winter and summer sessions, when the rats were cared for by our custodian. Food was the only control in our experiments.

During Our Experiment untold learning experiences developed. When the children themselves were asked what they had learned, some of the replies were :

'We need a good diet to grow strong and healthy.'

'Children who are skinny and have rickets probably don't have a good diet.'

Chart II

Growth of Pro II and Con II
Experiment II Experiment III

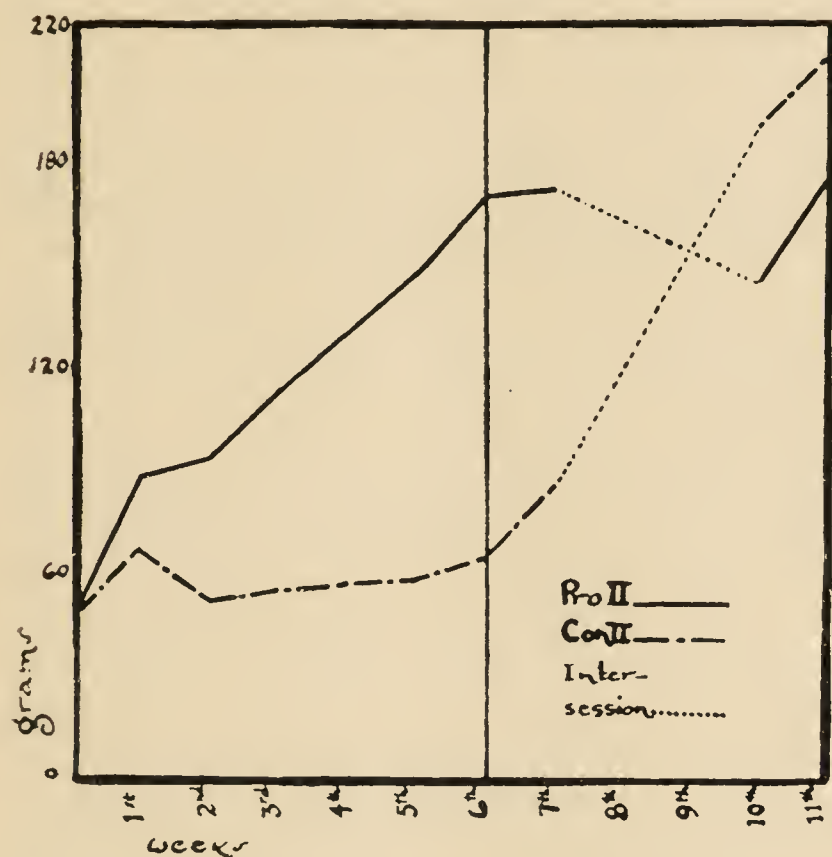


Chart II is a record of the weekly weights in grams of Pro II and Con II.

Experiment III began after the sixth week.

'Even if children get a bad start they can catch up if they have the right kind of food.'

'Rats are good subjects for food experiments.' (Dr. Bisbey told us that one week in the life of a rat approximates thirty weeks in the life of a human being.)

'We learned how to make and read broken line graphs.'

'Grams are smaller even than ounces.'

'How to make Con II's cornbread. I'm glad I don't have to eat it.'

The responsibility for the care of the rats, for weighing them, for marking the graph, and for explaining the experiment to visitors was taken entirely by the children. Children from other groups in the Laboratory School, as well as parents, were before- and after-session callers to see how Pro and Con were progressing.

The children are already discussing plans for next year which include more experiments. Call for more rats!

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The Scottish Film Scheme— An Operator's Viewpoint

W. G. Johnston

TO be a schoolmaster on Tuesday and a film operator on Thursday, seems a translation worthy of a Christmas pantomime; but it was such a revolution that I, and nineteen other Glasgow teachers, experienced in October. Each of the masters sent out by the Scottish Film Council had to provide his own car, to carry the two projectors, mains and battery, the films, and the portable screen. The whole of Scotland inhabited by evacuated children had to be visited by these units. My own district was Wigtownshire, in the extreme south-west. There, for the first time in my teaching career, I found myself with absolute liberty of action, no precedents to keep me in check, an ample supply of petrol, and one of the bonniest counties in Scotland as my classroom.

The job, I found, had many snags, but ample compensations. Perfect weather, enthusiastic schoolchildren, interested schoolmasters made the work in the nature of a triumphal tour. A battery projector, rooms with extremely primitive methods of darkening, and minor accidents to over-excited children, gave the spice of adventure. My most awkward moments came from the Kodascope Battery-driven projector, a really excellent machine, but one with which at first I was quite unfamiliar. A bad five minutes was experienced when my spare accumulator went flat in the middle of my one and only comedy, but the car battery, hastily disconnected, turned what would have been a tragedy back to comedy. Due to my clumsiness, the gate of the machine had a nasty habit of falling out as the film was being changed, a habit which I came to regard with equanimity, but which on its first manifestation, gave me a pronounced sinking feeling.

Most shows were given in crowded school-rooms, for the visit of the unit was regarded as a holiday. This often meant that the youthful audience were packed close to the table or

desk on which the machine was placed, and at the high spots in the comedy, it took a firm grip to prevent its being knocked over. At one school, a small boy who had discovered that a step-ladder made a convenient gallery, fell off in his excitement, fortunately causing more noise than injury.

The great enthusiasm aroused was most heartening, for the films, except for one starring Harold Lloyd, were all of the educational type. These were six in all: 'Feeding Time at the Zoo', 'Port of Glasgow', 'Rio Grande', 'The Farmer's Boy', 'The Clyde', and 'Rocky Mountain Mammals'. The first three were shown at all performances, the fourth shown occasionally, and the last two were never used. I had expected that the evacuated children, being accustomed to such films in Glasgow schools, would receive them kindly, but I was not prepared for the utter enthusiasm of the country boys and girls. Many of these, living in outlying districts, saw moving pictures for the first time. Most of them had never seen in reality the trams, double-decked buses, shipyards, grain elevators, portrayed in the 'Port of Glasgow'. If the Glasgow children were noisier in their appreciation, and quicker to grasp the points, the country children were more interested and fascinated. Many saw what they had already heard of, and they appreciated what they saw. The older boys in one school voted the educational films, like the 'Port of Glasgow', superior to the antics of Harold Lloyd. To the intelligent it opened a new world. The remarks I overheard showed that they followed closely the details of the 'Rio Grande', or the different methods by which animals feed. To the slower pupil, the movement on the screen appealed strongly, and I have since heard that many excellent essays were written. Somewhat surprising was the interest evinced by the country children in 'The Farmer's Boy', the scenes of which must have reflected their own experiences. I

had many a laugh at their caustic comments on the Boy's attempt to milk the cow.

Although not organised for their benefit, the scheme was an even greater success with local than with evacuated children. My most pleasant recollection is the unit's departure from a school, isolated twenty miles from the

nearest picture house, where the children lined the road and cheered till the car was out of sight. It is rather saddening to reflect that, but for Hitler's war, projectors would have become part of the normal schoolroom furniture of at least some of these Wigtownshire schools.

War-time Resolutions

EDUCATION is no longer universally compulsory in Great Britain, and the juvenile is no longer protected from industrial exploitation. These two facts became the basis of discussion at the meeting called by the English Section of the New Education Fellowship on January 13th, at which a number of important organizations were represented.

The school population and their teachers are divided into four unequal parts: the original inhabitants of reception areas; the newcomers evacuated to reception areas; the inhabitants of neutral areas; and those who have remained in or returned to evacuation areas. All four groups are suffering a vast disturbance, if not a halving or cessation, of their schooling. It may be said that the educational system of this country has broken down.

Various suggestions were made as to the causes of the dislocation. If the Board of Education, instead of the Ministry of Health, had been responsible for the evacuation of school children, the educational needs of the children would presumably not have been so neglected. If the Board of Education had as great a pull over the Treasury as has the Ministry of Health this neglect could now be repaired. If the reception of the children from evacuation areas had been really well planned, fewer would have returned—indeed, many more might have joined them. If the war had begun with a series of severe air raids, the fury of these might have been spent by now, and we might be looking back on evacuation as a temporary measure whose gains had outweighed its defects. If there were not such a shortage of building materials, greater safety could be provided for the children in neutral areas and for the non-evacuated.

Amongst a wealth of observations, most of

them based on first hand experience, there were several definite proposals:

(1) It was suggested that evacuation should now be made compulsory. This met with considerable opposition and no support.

(2) The point was made that at all costs the family unit must be retained and that this was especially important if recurrent wars are to be a feature of modern life. It was suggested that this demanded the return home of the children, with the provision of safety there, whatever the expenditure involved. (It was urged, on the other hand, that the more prosperous classes had not found family life to suffer irreparably from the system of nursery upbringing for small children and boarding schools for older ones.)

(3) It was suggested that residential schools or camps, run on the lines of the best boarding schools, properly staffed and providing opportunities for children to see their parents periodically, would offer the best all-round solution of the war-time problem. It was contended that billeting in private houses with what was described as 'the conscripting of country-women as child-minders' could not go on indefinitely. The opponents of the camp solution based their case mainly on the claims of the family and the danger that in such camps teachers would be seriously overworked.

(4) The proposal was made that education should be made compulsory and a new chance be given to parents to choose between keeping their children at home or evacuating them, but no choice as to whether they go to school or not. This last was drafted into a resolution which was passed unanimously:

'That H.M. Government fix a date, to be determined by the Board of Education, after which attendance at school in every type of area, evacuable, neutral, and reception, shall once more be made

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compulsory ; and that it be a requirement of parents in evacuation areas to choose before that date whether they wish their children to remain in an evacuation area or to remain in or return to a reception area.'

The meeting also passed a resolution :

'That H.M. Government be urged to modify the condition affecting the building of new schools laid down in the Board of Education Circular 1477 to enable Education Authorities in reception areas to erect new school buildings where they are required, and that such buildings be planned so that after the war they may be used as school camps or as holiday camps.'

As regards the fate of the juvenile, a good deal was said about the exploitation of children of school age by their parents, where there is no compulsion to send them to school. Boys of 11 and 12 are working at various kinds of jobs in large numbers. Much more was said of the future of the present senior and secondary school population, especially of the latter, whose academic studies and prospects of matriculation are being so interfered with as seriously to imperil their future careers. The condition of technical education, especially in Junior Technical Schools, gave rise to grave concern, and the following resolution was passed :

'That this Conference deplores the condition into which technical education has lapsed since the outbreak of the war, welcomes the steps recently taken in respect to the more advanced types of technical instruction, and urges the Board of

Education to restore as far as possible the Junior Technical Schools to full operation at an early date'.

Finally, the school leavers are no longer getting proper vocational guidance through the Juvenile Advisory Committees, and the unsuitability of the work that some of them are drifting into was shown by the fact that certain boys, it was reported, are working over 70 hours, and certain girls 68½ hours a week in factories.

One speaker after another testified to the havoc that the war is already playing with the hopes and ambitions of juveniles. The following resolution was passed unanimously :

'That this meeting welcomes the statement made by the National Youth Committee of the Board of Education, of the intention of the Government not to permit the social problems of the last war to recur in this one, but deplores the fact that the Government itself has already created grave social problems by (1) the granting of permission in certain cases, for the suspension of the 1937 Factories Act regulations governing the hours of employment of juveniles, (2) the suspension of the vocational guidance activities of Juvenile Advisory Committees, and (3) the suspension of examinations for entry to the Civil Service.'

ENGLISH SECTION

A meeting will be held during the week-end of March 30th. Subject: 'EDUCATION IN WAR TIME'. Speakers and place to be announced later. Will members and their friends make a note of the date.

Book Reviews

Towards Mental Health in School. By Dr. C. R. Myers. (Oxford University Press, 7/6.)

The purpose of this book is twofold: 'to provide the minimum of factual information about mental disease which is essential to the development of a healthy attitude towards the subject', and 'to discuss certain of the mental health difficulties of normal children' so that teachers can make 'a significant contribution to the maintenance of good mental health in school'. In the limited space of 150 pages

the author, in my opinion, achieves both purposes admirably.

He emphasizes that, as we no longer consider that we know intuitively what is best for the physical health of the child, so we cannot be guided entirely by commonsense nor by our natural talent in catering for the emotional health of the child. He insists that we should face facts in regard to mental illness; we should rid ourselves of false notions in regard to the subject, but adopt a more enlightened attitude to the person who is mentally ill.

He points out, from the evidence of psychological research, that teachers should be more concerned over those pupils who behave like 'little ladies and gentlemen' than over 'the aggressive trouble-makers' in the classroom. Without being an alarmist he indicates how frequent mental illness is, and quotes Canadian figures to show that there are at least ten out of an average class of forty children 'whose mental health is so poor as to interfere seriously with their chance of success' in both school and after-school life. He describes the early symptoms of maladjustment, the special characteristics of the 'unsociable', 'the model', 'the nervous', and 'the emotional' child, and explains how children adopt different methods of dealing with frustration.

He gives some excellent, simple, and practical suggestions in regard to the teacher's method of handling such problems as inattention, day-dreaming, timidity, and other personality difficulties. Above all he stresses the importance of the teacher's attitude—the need to give 'quiet assistance', a reasonable amount of sympathy and attention, confident encouragement, and 'the need to look for causes before treating symptoms'. The last part of the book is perhaps the most important. It deals with the mental health of the teacher, and outlines the principles to be followed if the teacher as well as the children is to be 'cheerful, well poised, unprejudiced, vigorous and healthy'.

This is a challenging book for teachers to read, and should encourage a little wholesome soul-searching. It is also a very readable book for students in training. Possibly it over-simplifies psychological difficulties, and the avoidance of technical terms is perhaps rather too rigid, but it should urge the intelligent student to further reading and more thoughtful observation of the children she meets in her teaching practice.

Agatha H. Bowley, B.A.

(Clinic Psychologist, The Dundee Training College)

The Psychology of Parent-Child Relationships. By Dr. P. M. Symonds. (Appleton Century, 9/-.)

This is certainly an important book. It offers scientific evidence on the fundamental importance of emotional security to the developing personality. This is a truism to clinical workers, but it is seldom that one can offer such clear-cut evidence as Dr. Symonds has presented. The author of this book is at great pains to state his conclusions cautiously, as the numbers of cases are small, and a full knowledge of the homes and the early history of the parents was not always obtained; but the differences in the behaviour and personality characteristics of the 'accepted', the 'rejected', the 'dominating', and the 'submissive' children are clearly outlined from the evidence offered.

Moreover, this book is a challenge to behaviourism. Throughout, the importance of regarding the child as a total personality is stressed, and the fact that behaviour emanates from unconscious as well as conscious drives is clearly stated, on the basis of a

great deal of evidence from case studies. The relation of delinquency and aggressive behaviour to a sense of rejection, and of dependence and poor personality development to the possession of dominating parents—facts so familiar to Child Guidance workers—is demonstrated.

The chapter on the varieties and etiology of parent-child relations will prove the most helpful to the general reader. It is both positive and constructive. It defines emotional security very adequately, and shows how important it is to the child from the very beginning. Numerous practical suggestions in regard to everyday developmental difficulties are given also. How parents' attitudes affect their children's behaviour, and how these attitudes themselves arise from the parents' early up-bringing is the recurrent theme of this book.

Dr. Symonds bases his conclusions on an analysis of 31 pairs of accepted and rejected children, and 28 pairs of dominating and submissive children. The case studies are supplied by former students of his, all considered competent for such work, and the evidence for their selection of children has to be supplied in each case. A control group is an important feature of this type of research, and Dr. Symonds follows Healy and Bronner in emphasizing its importance.

The book contains numerous references to previous literature on the subject—the reference to D. Levy's work is especially interesting—and quotes from psycho-analytic literature in order to clarify such concepts as hostility, aggression, dominance, submission, acceptance and rejection. The serious student of psychology will find much stimulus to thought and to further reading.

The analysis of the teacher-pupil relation is extremely sound, in my opinion. It should, perhaps, go a step further, and give more practical suggestions for the teacher, remembering the weakness of human nature, the usual size of the class, and how difficult it is to put ideals into practice.

The author pleads for more research work of this nature. This challenge might well be taken up in this country. It is a sad reflection on ourselves that the U.S.A. can always find time and money for research work, while in Great Britain neither can easily be obtained.

A. H. B.

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Points from Letters

Since I wrote an article for *The New Era*, telling of War-time Play Hour Activities of Children's House, events have moved rapidly. We have now opened in Children's House a little Day School for children who have not evacuated or have returned from evacuation. There are about sixty of them, all meeting in three separate sessions.

It is, of course, a most valuable opportunity of doing some free work. The children are all very keen and enthusiastic.

Our only problem is that we had not budgeted on this, and have therefore to meet an increased expenditure of seventy pounds a year for heating and cleaning, etc.; not a large sum compared with the service that is being offered. On the other hand, it is a sum which is rather difficult to come by, when one is already committed up to the hilt.

If any of your readers would consider making themselves in part financially responsible for this very needed piece of work in East London, it would be very greatly appreciated by us down here, who are trying to carry on a full and even an extended programme under war conditions.

Yours faithfully,

Doris Lester,

Kingsley Hall, Powis Road, Bow, E.3

In answer to our query as to whether the 4/6 German recorder were available in war time, Mr. Fowler writes :

'Up to the present most of the recorders used in schools have been of German origin—chiefly Herwig instruments. The descant recorder was 4/6. It is scarcely correct to say they are no longer on the market. I believe there are still thousands in the shops of England, but when this stock is exhausted, fresh supplies will be unobtainable. Consequently several English firms are producing inexpensive recorders approximating the very high standard of the Herwig. I have had three models sent by different firms for testing. The prices, though varying slightly, are very similar to the price of the German instrument. The quality of these synthetic English instruments also varies. In my opinion they are not as good as the Herwig, but one or two makes are not far behind. I believe that one English firm is at present producing a descant recorder made of wood to cost approximately 8/6, but I have not yet seen one.'

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Foreword

John Rickman

**Psychiatrist to Haymeads Emergency Hospital,
Bishop's Stortford; Physician to London Clinic
of Psycho-Analysis and to the Institute for the
Scientific Treatment of Delinquency. Editor:
The British Journal of Medical Psychology**

A FEW months ago family life received the biggest disturbance that has befallen it in the history of these islands. There was the exodus from London at the time of the plague in the seventeenth century, but in that case whole families went together, and being regarded as plague carriers had to keep themselves pretty much to themselves. There have been press-gangs and conscriptions that have taken away young men, but in none of these cases was the pattern of family life—parents living with their children—to any great extent broken up. Before the crisis last year, without fuss or hurry, and to an extent undreamed of in this quiet uninvaded country of ours, children were separated from their parents for an indefinite time.

In their wisdom the Government made it a voluntary separation, so that no one should make a greater sacrifice for the military necessity than he could bear with equanimity; for the purpose of the evacuation was not only to preserve the lives of children but also to maintain the morale of adults under the strain of imminent peril. The business of daily life must go on during times of danger without the added distraction of providing for children's special needs and soothing their fretted nerves.

It has been called an experiment, but in one sense it is no more an experiment than are sand-bagging buildings or rationing food and fuel. If, however, we can withdraw ourselves to a

distance as scientists are wont to do and yet observe minutely the effects of the disruption of family life, we may learn much from this event. But we must behave with true detachment, having no axe to grind, no special opinion to propagate nor political or social doctrine to substantiate.

When life runs smoothly, or at any rate when it runs in its accustomed way, observation is difficult because so many things are taken for granted and because the forces that mould our emotional life are not seen in isolation. We believe for instance that the things we most value are due to our living in families and that they are derived ultimately from our early experience of parental love, but we do not fully realize what the family means to us until it is disorganized. The evacuation therefore provides an important object of study because it will tell us not only about a present trouble, but also will help us to see more clearly the basic pattern of the environment in which we all grew up.

The articles which follow are valuable for the light they throw on present difficulties, but even more important in my view is their help in seeing the foundations and structure of that nursery of our social life—the normal family.

A word about the contradictory rumours as to how the evacuation scheme has 'worked'. Of course, when all the facts are known there are no contradictions, for the facts are put into their appropriate setting. If the articles which

follow do no more than help the reader to see the emotional setting into which the details of any special case must fit, the writers will have done much to ease the burden that is laid on so many of us at the present time. But I think

they do more than this—they show us what a precious thing we possess in safe keeping for those that grow out of us and live with us in our common human life—they throw new light on the meaning of home.

The Uprooted Child

Susan Isaacs

Head of the Department of Child Development,
University of London Institute of Education

ON the outbreak of war at the beginning of September, 1939, a large number of children of all ages were suddenly taken from their homes in London and other great cities of England and put to live with strangers in country towns and villages.

This enforced migration appeared to be the only way to avoid tragedy and ruin and to preserve morale under the threat of air raids. Yet no sooner had we solved this vitally urgent problem than we knew that many others of a quite different kind, but scarcely less acute, had been created for us. We had to consider how to restore normal education and how to ensure normal development under the new conditions.

Many children at once settled happily into their new homes. Others, for various reasons, could not accept the change so readily and smoothly, and disturbances of many sorts arose in their behaviour. We began to realize that it would take all our educational and social resources to help the children get over the difficulties and reap the full benefits of the experience they were undergoing.

We cannot give the children what they need, however, without some understanding of what this great experience has meant *to them*; what they felt like when they were suddenly uprooted and taken away from their parents to entirely new surroundings, and had to learn to live with new people. We need to realize what these experiences mean to the child himself, with his limited knowledge and understanding of life, and his feelings of dependence, his need for affection and his proneness to anxiety.

The aim of these papers is to further the well-being of evacuated children and therefore the success of the evacuation scheme as a whole, by contributing to the general understanding of the child's own point of view.

The country air, the better food, the joy of climbing trees, fishing, walking in the fields, watching farm animals, the varied opportunities for new activities and new learning, which the countryside or small town give to city children, are in themselves an undoubted gain, bringing health and pleasure. On this we are all agreed. But to help the child to get full benefit from these changes, we have to understand as well all that he has lost, and all that may bewilder him.

First and foremost comes the parting from parents and family. In a certain country town the children were asked to write essays on 'What I like most in X' and 'What I miss most in X'. These show that, no matter how great their pleasure in their new surroundings, how keen their appreciation of what has been done for them by generous foster-parents and helpers, the children miss intensely their own fathers and mothers, uncles and aunts, grandparents and the family circle as a whole.

The fundamental relationships of life have been cut across suddenly, and that, as the children realize, for an indefinite period, and under very disturbing conditions. This is different from a fortnight's summer holiday with a return to home and parents; different indeed from leaving home to enter a boarding school. Both such situations are a normal part of life and are well prepared for. In both, the child goes away knowing that it is only for a definite time, and that his parents and home remain unchanged. In spite of this he may secretly fear that he may never see his parents again; but he has no real grounds for such a fear, and everything in his home surroundings goes to show that any such anxiety is only a feeling, with no basis in fact. In the present situation, everything goes to

confirm and support the child's dread that his parents may be lost for ever, that before he can see them again or return to his home, it may have been ruined and destroyed.

Quite a number of the younger children have shown open anxiety on behalf of their parents, the fear that their homes and their father and mother might at any moment be attacked and destroyed by enemy bombs. This fear was very acute in the minds of many children immediately after evacuation, and had a good deal to do with many of the difficulties (such as bed-wetting, defiance and stealing) which some of them showed in the first weeks and months. In some children this anxiety on behalf of the parents was largely unconscious and only appeared in such symptoms ; in others it was open and clear.

The loss of the parents and family circle is felt by the child in the intimate details of daily life, even when the home was actually far from ideal. Father is not there to teach him what is right and reprove him if he does wrong. In his essay one boy wrote : 'I miss the hidings my dad gave me'. Mother is not there to feed him, to tuck him up in bed and kiss him good-night, to get him up and ready for school in the morning. The familiar cosy warmth of the family life is missed very much. Another child, in his essay, drew the picture of father, and mother, brothers and sisters, roasting chestnuts by the fireside on a Saturday evening ; 'and it does not matter how much mess you make as long as you brush it all up afterwards.'

Gone, too, is the pleasure of taking the baby (or the baby next door) for a walk or game. Gone are the opportunities for helping mother, running errands, washing up, the general sharing of duties and pleasures, being taken to the pictures, with walks or jaunts at the week-ends. Many children speak very sadly of the way they miss their pets, the dogs, cats and canaries. Quite a number write comments such as : 'My mother says that every time the door opens at home my pussy thinks it is me coming back, and it makes me very sad.' And the cousins who come to play on Saturday afternoon, the loved and battered toys, the garden, the well-known streets and houses, all the give and take of family life, with its ups and downs, its quarrels and its forgivenesses,

its warmth and familiar smells, its sense of belonging, its background and its roots—all these are lost at one blow. It is not merely one aspect, but the whole of life which is suddenly new. Each child feels that he has left a large part of himself behind there in the great city, and does not know whether he will ever recover it again. His home may be poor and mean, he may in fact be ill-taught and trained. Yet to him, home is still home ; it is still the focus and centre of his life, and that has suddenly gone.

This feeling is strong in all children, although some show it more plainly than others. The age of the child has some influence on the extent to which he can tolerate the conflict of feelings aroused by this loss. The younger and older children (under 7 and over 12) are more openly affected, more disturbed in their feelings, behaviour and bodily control. Children of the middle years are on the whole more successful both in hiding their feelings and in adapting to new conditions against which there is no appeal, because at these ages they have so much love of adventure and change and new experience, and find special satisfaction in the sort of activities which the country can provide for them. Nevertheless most children between 7 and 12 years of age have also shown how greatly they miss their parents and their family life at home.

Quite a number of children deal with their fear of war and the loss of home in a different way. So far from feeling open dread lest their homes should now be in ruins and their parents dead, they cling to the belief that the war and the black-out are only real in the place where they now live, the village or country town. Only here is it dark and gloomy and quiet, only here is there the oppressive black-out and danger. Such children seem to have kept in their minds a picture of their homes as they knew them before the war, cosy and content, brightly lit, full of life and happiness. They want to get back home because they have kept this picture of everything that was good there, and cling to it as if it alone were real.

The loss of parents and home and familiar surroundings is, however, only one half of the child's problem. The other half is the positive

claim of the new and unfamiliar world, and the need to accept and adapt to it. The strange town and unfamiliar streets stir up in many children the fear of getting lost. Again, to wake up at night with every detail of the house and bedroom strange is intimidating for many even of the older children. In the moment of waking, instead of the familiar outlines and contacts, everything is new and potentially hostile. A four-year-old once remarked to another child about some visitors : 'These people have never seen you, so they don't like you'. Habits and habitual expectations are no guide. The effort of learning, the fear of hurting oneself if one attempts to move about a strange house in the dark, is very acute in many children. And this is not only an external problem of light and dark and space and shape and direction. The familiar home, the familiar furniture, the lines and shapes and distribution of light and shade which one has known from early childhood and shared with parents and brothers and sisters, mean love and warmth and comfort too. The new house means new and unknown people, new and unknown demands. It takes time to learn that the new people, the new home, are friendly and trustworthy.

All the daytime habits of the new home are strange too. Things one was allowed to do as a matter of course may be frowned upon here. Things that one does not know how to do may be required. Ways of eating, ways of dressing, ways of arranging things on the meal table, all the countless little details of habit in the daily life may be changed and may have to be re-learned before there is any sense of familiarity and ease in the billet.

This is especially true of those children who have been billeted with families of a different social and economic standard. On the whole it seems true that billeting has its greatest chance of success when there is no marked difference in social life and status between the foster-child and the foster-parents. Take the question of clothes, for example. It may seem a desirable thing on grounds of physical hygiene to change completely the clothing of a poor child from the slums and discard all his own poor outfit ; but it must be remembered that the child's garments, no matter how poor

and mean, are one of his links with home and parents, and to deprive him of them completely, and at one blow, is to add to the strangeness of his new world and to widen the gulf that already yawns so deeply between him and his own home. Some children are so depressed by the loss of the clothes which mother has put upon them, and the criticism of mother implied in the rejection of their clothes, that the ultimate harm to the children's feelings may be bigger than the gain from their cleanliness.

Even the question of change of food has this aspect. Many people have been surprised that poor children from the towns do not always take very readily to the different and better food in their new homes. They miss their fish and chips, they often prefer their 'bread and marge' to good and varied fresh country food. But again this is not simply a matter of habit or a perversity of taste ; nor is it merely a rejection of what is new and strange in itself. 'Bread and marge' have been a part of home. The food which mother gives is good partly *because* mother gives it. It is bound up with her care and her affection ; no matter how meagre her resources or unskilled her care may be from our point of view, to the child it is mother's care. He cannot suddenly turn away from all that mother and father have done for him and transfer his feelings of love to new food, the new clothes, new ways of life, new people.

It is so with ways of speech, the different accent and idiom. The whole manner of speech may be different, if the child is transported from one social level to another or even from one part of the country to another. We know what coldness, enmity and loneliness, differences of speech, clothing, manners, and food, may bring about between educated adults. These things have a still more personal meaning for the young child, since he is so much more dependent upon his surroundings, and needs so much more the warm intimacy of home and the familiar idiom of daily life. He has struggled to learn a particular set of manners, a particular way of speech in order to please mother, and if now he finds that his ways of eating and talking do not please his foster-mother, he cannot

change himself all at once, since he has not yet learnt to love and trust her. He cannot yet unlearn what mother has taught him, since the ways which have pleased her seem to bring her near to him in his mind. A foster-home which is more spacious and cleanly than his own may thus seem to the child a bare and empty place, forbidding in its very cleanliness, until he has learnt to love the people who live in it.

The parting from his parents and adapting to life in a new home, moreover, stirs up again in the child, no matter what his age, that intense conflict of feelings which he passed through in his earliest days of childhood.

Even though the children may have been told that the evacuation is a Government plan another reason for going from home takes precedence in their minds; even though they see others evacuated too, they cannot rid themselves of the idea that children are sent from home because they are bad.

Every young child has not only feelings of love and dependence towards his parents, but also impulses of greed, jealousy, and defiance. Hence he feels a secret guilt and dread of losing his loved parents, as a result of his hate and anger and defiance. The absence from his home and parents now, along with his fears on their behalf, revive these early anxieties and unconscious conflicts. He fears that he may really have lost his loved ones for ever, and feels the separation so acutely partly because it seems like a punishment for his own early angers and defiances, his own jealousy of brothers and sisters, his own greed and lack of love towards them. Every child has to cope with these feelings and impulses; they are normal in development, no matter how troublesome they may be. In the dear and familiar life of the family, the child is able to some extent to overcome his early angers and hatreds and anxieties—at any rate the worst of them—by the continued comfort of his parents' presence and care and affection, as well as by what he learns to do for them in return. But now, suddenly deprived of this comforting give and take, the old nightmares of early childhood, his secret dread of having injured his parents by his defiant anger and hidden greed and destructiveness, surge back

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upon him, and he fears he will lose them for ever. Now he can no longer serve and help them and he sees no way to make amends for his naughtinesses.

These were the feelings and conflicts of feeling from which sprang so many of the difficulties (bad language, defiance and self-assertiveness, open anxiety and night terrors, bed-wetting, etc.) which showed themselves at first in many evacuated children, and are still burdening a proportion of them. The majority of the children have, however, been able fairly soon to get over the parting from their parents and to learn to be at ease and even to love their new homes and their new surroundings.

Yet that things are not too simple even in the feelings of the more adaptable children is shown by the so frequent reports that they have been upset by the visits of their parents. Some children have felt acutely the repeated parting, and, after the visit, become again anxious, quarrelsome or dirty for a time. This has led some people to argue that the visits from their own parents were necessarily bad for the children, disturbing their relationship

with the foster-home. Careful observation over a long period, however, has shown that this is not necessarily true, and that in the long run and the majority of cases, parents' visits help the children to settle down.

Now these children, who seem to be more unhappy after the visit of their parents, help us to understand another very important aspect of the life of the parted child—the acute conflict in the child's feelings between his love and longing for his own home and his own parents, and the pleasure and content in the new home, when this is good to him. This conflict of loyalties is very much to be reckoned with in all children. Very few children can easily or immediately transfer their love and loyalty, their respect and dependence, to strangers and a new home without some sense of guilt and distress on behalf of their own parents. Nor is it desirable that they should do so too easily and immediately. If they could appear at once to forget their longing and loyalty towards their own homes, this could hardly make for stable social development in later life.

And this conflict of loyalties enters into all the details of their new life, such as the difficulties of accepting new ways of eating, new food, different clothes, different ways of speech, different manners, different habits of life. No matter how attractive and good the new ways may appear, as they often are in the many excellent homes which have taken in the little strangers, yet for the child fully to accept them and enjoy them means *to him* turning his back upon mother and father and all that he has been taught to hold good and dear up to that point.

To some degree all children can and should do this, since although love and loyalty to one's parents is an essential element in a stable character, yet it is also normal to be able to transfer some of one's affection and respect to other people, to widen the circle of one's loved and honoured ones from the home to the school and to other friends, to heroes and heroines in all walks of life. In normal conditions, however, this does not mean turning one's back completely upon one's home and choosing these others instead of one's parents. It means enlarging the circle,

not taking the one instead of the other. Under evacuation, however, it may seem to the child that life is demanding that he should turn away altogether from his own parents and love the new ones instead. Where differences in modes and standards of life are acute, this is bound to seem to him to be a rejection of his own and therefore to make him feel guilty and disloyal towards them.

It is for these reasons that billeting is likely to be most successful (and experience seems to support this view) where one or both of two conditions are met: first, where there is very little difference of mode of life and social standards, so that to accept the new ways of life does not imply a condemnation of the old; and secondly, where the foster-parents and the child's own parents are able to maintain a friendly relation, so that the child does not feel that he is being asked to turn his back entirely upon his own home and loved ones, and reject them. Moreover, there is evidence to show that children settle down in their foster-homes most satisfactorily when two or three of the same family or, failing this, two or three old friends, are billeted together. If the circumstances make this difficult, then at least it is a help to children to be billeted in the same street or group of houses as their family or friends.

Any influence which lessens the shock of parting and the degree of strangeness and helps to keep alive close links with home, is bound to add to the ease with which the child adapts himself to the new home and the new surroundings.

In forging a close link between the children's new and old lives, the school can also play a great part. Those children who have remained with their own school units, with their own teachers, their own school companions, have found it much easier to settle down than those who have lost school teachers and friends, as well as the home circle. Especially are they helped when, as in so many cases, their teachers work in close touch with the foster-homes. Many teachers, both men and women, have reported how unmistakably children of all ages have put them, both men and women teachers, in the place of their parents. They have shown more

personal dependence, more warmth of feeling, more search for guidance, than had ever been apparent in ordinary conditions of life. The teacher and the school have thus a great part to play in lessening the difficulties of the new world, and keeping alive the loyalties to the old.

Space will not allow us to go into any details as to the practical ways in which the foster-homes, the schools, the Education Authorities and voluntary helpers, can aid evacuated children to master their conflicts of feeling and make the most of their new life. But we may sum up the situation briefly.

Evacuated children have three deep needs. First, they need not only shelter, food, and clothing, but warmth of atmosphere, love, and friendliness. They need a *home*. They can no more live without love and warm friendliness than they can without food and shelter.

Secondly, they need an active social life among their companions, together with the space, material, and opportunity for play,

and for all the creative activities (arts and crafts, drama, books, excursions) which will enable them to feel that they are still learning and creating, and help them understand the new aspects of life with which they are surrounded. Play centres and their own schools should give them these active experiences of the new world they now live in.

Thirdly, they need help in keeping alive the images of their parents and their loyalties to their own homes. The foster-parents, the schools, the social agencies, cannot serve these children fully if they break these links. They can do so only if they show a friendly attitude to the children's own family and home life. And this is not a mere matter of allowing or encouraging visits from parents. It has much more to do with attitudes and feelings. The boon of good food, country air, new experiences, a better way of life, are little worth if they are allowed to drive a wedge between the child and his own parents.

The Problem of the Young Child

John Bowlby

**Psychiatrist to the Child Guidance
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WHEN the effects upon children of a domestic upheaval or a family tragedy are being discussed, one often hears the remark: 'Oh, he's only a little chap—fortunately it won't affect him', or 'Of course, he was too young to understand'. In these statements it is implied that the very small child is far less influenced by family events than his older brothers and sisters, who may be expected to be upset and troubled. This view has often been challenged and nowadays is challenged by the great majority of child psychologists. Small children have a most deceptive way of appearing not to be affected by these events. A beloved nurse may leave, and the child never even refers to her again. Mother goes abroad and the child appears to settle cheerfully and happily with someone else. Surely evidence of this kind proves that small children are not affected! Why should anyone think otherwise?

In the first place it must be remembered

that not all small children, by which is meant children between 12 months and 5 years, do settle down happily after their mothers or nurses have left them. Sometimes, in fact, they mope so much and eat so little that mother or nurse has to be sent for. At other times they become troublesome and difficult, and no one can quite understand why the sweet-tempered Jimmie has become so irritable and tiresome. And apart from the children who show these unmistakable signs of unhappiness and distress, careful observation of many of those who appear not to be affected shows that underneath their cheerful exterior they are minding very much indeed. Sometimes the child, who never mentions the nurse who has left him, will play a game in which the nurse appears as a cruel and horrid person who has deserted her baby. The child whose mother has gone abroad will play games about little children whose mother has died. Often to a sympathetic person a great deal of

unhappiness and anxiety is expressed in this kind of way. The fact that a child settles down with strangers often means no more than that he has become resigned to his fate. He believes himself an orphan, for ever deserted by those he has loved and trusted. Efforts to find them and get back to them are therefore useless. He gives up hope and makes the best of a bad job. This despairing frame of mind may persist through life. When the situation is viewed in this way, we can see that it is really a misfortune that small children become resigned so easily, for if they protested more strongly many injurious things would not be done. We are now beginning to learn that many harmful things can be done to a baby and a toddler without the harm being obvious at the time, just as the effects of bad diet may take months or even years to manifest themselves.

Those who work in child guidance clinics and see many nervous, difficult and delinquent children are all too often faced with the after results of these long separations. A remarkably high proportion of such children are found to have had most unsettled home conditions during their first few years of life. Sometimes their mother was ill or died and they were looked after by a succession of different people. Sometimes their parents were abroad and they were left in the hands of strange aunts and nurses, sometimes the parents separated, sometimes the child himself was in hospital. But, whatever the cause, the striking thing about these children's lives has been that in their early years they have been for periods of many months in the hands of complete strangers instead of in the unchanged care of one or two familiar women as most children are.

And if we investigate these cases further we often find that as a result of these changes and long separations the child has become completely estranged from his mother. For instance, one little boy who had been in hospital unvisited from the age of 15 months until he was two years old, had completely failed to recognize his mother on his return home. He insisted on calling her 'nurse' and refused anything to eat for several days. Apart from the effect on the child such a state of affairs is naturally very distressing for the mother.

No doubt many children who have suffered these experiences regain contact with their families afterwards, but there can be no doubt that many do not. When this happens the child is apt to grow up into a discontented and difficult adolescent and to be a chronic social misfit in later life.

Reflections of this kind are obviously most relevant at the present day when we are planning for the evacuation of large numbers of small children. If we face the dangers squarely there is no reason why they should not be overcome, but if we try to pretend that there is no problem and think that so long as he is 'too young to understand' it does not much matter what we arrange, we shall certainly make mistakes of a far-reaching kind.

What then are we to do about it? What practical steps can we take which will avoid, or at least reduce, the risks described?

In the first place every encouragement should be given to the mothers of toddlers to leave the danger areas with their small children so that they can continue looking after them themselves. There can be no doubt that this is the ideal course from the child's point of view, although as we all now know there are many practical difficulties to be overcome. Even if they will leave their homes, mothers with babies present a great problem to the billeting officers. With the best will in the world few women can share their house with another. There is friction over small things and they get on each other's nerves. In almost every case where a mother and baby has been billeted in someone else's house they have gone home. The few mothers who have remained are almost all housed in empty cottages or wings of houses. In these they appear to be very happy, and if more accommodation of this kind could be provided it seems reasonable to suppose that if raids began a large number of mothers with small children would be willing to be evacuated again.

But unfortunately empty cottages and houses are scarce. The practice of taking over large empty houses where available and arranging them so that they can be occupied by a number of evacuated mothers and children might be tried more widely, however. A warden is necessary but all the work of the house and

care of the children can be left in the hands of the mothers.

In at least one locality this plan was successful in providing the mothers with a place in which they were prepared to stay. It was the Local Authorities and not the evacuated mothers who objected to it. For the mothers, rather naturally, preferred to divide the house so that each had a bed-living room to herself and her family, whereas the billeting officer intended them to live communally. This separation into family units was held, however, to make the house into tenements, and the Local Authorities stepped in and closed it. It is difficult not to regard such action as short-sighted. If evacuation is to be made to work, sacrifices must be made all round. Working women want a place to themselves like anyone else. To forbid it in the interests of the social status of the neighbourhood, or even in the interests of hygiene, is simply a way of ensuring their return to the cities. In addition to this plan, which could be adopted by billeting officers at once, the Government might be urged to build cottage-camps for mothers and children instead of, or as well as, school camps; but this proposal lies outside the scope of this article.

First then let us do our best to arrange good accommodation for however many mothers care to accompany their children. It is, of course, more difficult and far more nuisance to provide accommodation for mothers as well as for children, but there can be no doubt that it is in the small child's interest to do so.

But there are many, probably a majority, of mothers who for one reason or another cannot accompany their young children. Many have husbands and homes to look after, some have older adolescent children to provide for. They feel that they cannot leave them. Yet they want their two-, three-, and four-year-olds out of the danger area.

One solution of this problem has been found by parents finding friends or relations for their children to go with or stay with, for it is far less of a shock for a small child to be looked after by someone he knows than by a complete and total stranger. If an aunt, a granny or an old family friend already living in a safe area will take the child, so much the better.

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When this is not possible mothers should be encouraged to find a friend or neighbour who is being evacuated and would look after an extra baby. This was done to some extent last September. In some cases unmarried girls who were friends of the family undertook to look after the toddlers. This plan might be explored further since by utilising those mothers who are prepared to leave the cities to look after their friends' three-year-olds as well as their own, some at least of the emotional problems could be avoided. This scheme, however, depends upon adequate and suitable accommodation being provided in the billeting areas.

Finally we come to the crucial problem. What is to be done with the thousands of toddlers whose mothers can neither take them themselves nor find friends or relations who can take them?

First let it be said that it is far better that the real babies should not go at all. Any baby under two years is quite unfit to be sent away from his mother unless it be to close and reliable friends. This view seems now to be

held in official circles, and there can be no doubt it is the right one.

Moreover, so long as there are no air raids, there are powerful reasons for leaving the two-, three- and four-year-olds in the evacuation areas with their mothers. Unlike the older children who at the worst are coming to no serious harm and who at the best are profiting greatly from their experiences, very young children away from their mothers with strangers for months at a time may suffer severe psychological damage. To run this risk when there is no bombing seems foolish. It would be tragic if more damage were to be caused by our precautions than by the weapons they were designed to protect us against.

Nevertheless many people will not share this view. Moreover, air raids may begin at any moment, and we must have a clear policy. Plans for the evacuation of children in large groups and day nurseries have mercifully been abandoned although a number of children are still being cared for in this way. Instead, the placing of children in foster-homes is being considered. Where willing foster-mothers can be found there can be no doubt that this is the best policy, although it may be difficult to accommodate sufficient numbers in this way.

If all else fails it may be necessary to evacuate some of them in the care of trained workers. But whether it be a country woman or a trained worker who looks after the children certain vital precautions are necessary if the development of the children's characters is not to suffer.

Very serious attention should be given to see that the children remain in the care of one woman, who should always bear the official title of foster-mother. By this description, the proper emotional relation is encouraged and she is encouraged too to regard the children as to some extent her own. She is then far more likely to feel responsible for the child's future and so to remain with her particular charges for the duration of the War.

It must be repeated that it is very bad for small children to be looked after by a succession of strange people. If small children must be evacuated to the care of strangers in the midst of strange surroundings, all that is humanly possible should be done to see that

the stranger who takes them remains with them. It must be remembered that the changes from mother to foster-mother and back again from foster-mother to mother at the end of the War constitute two great emotional upheavals in the little child's development. These two changes are bad enough though they may be unavoidable. But when a child is in a resident nursery and looked after first by one person and then by another, no one person looking after him all the time, then the likelihood of damage is infinitely increased. The same, of course, is true if a child changes frequently from one foster-mother to another.

Actually a constantly changing personnel often has the effect of seriously upsetting the children at the time, quite apart from its long-run effects. At one evacuated day-nursery, for instance, V.A.D's were engaged to help with the children. Each evening two volunteers came in, the two being different each night of the week. This scheme, nicely designed to relieve the day-nursery workers and to train the V.A.D's, soon had to be abandoned, for the children screamed and yelled as each new face appeared and refused to let the well-meaning volunteers undertake the sacred rite of bathing them. Naturally, too, there were bitter tears when these intruders came to tuck them up for the night. The same children were also badly upset when they were moved to a new building and half the staff were replaced. Symptoms such as crying, bed-wetting, soiling, and destructiveness appeared and it was a few weeks before they subsided.

What should be avoided therefore is the placing of little children in large groups under the care of a matron and the frequent changing of junior nurses. A staff of this kind may be very admirable in its work and genuinely kind to the children. But not having a special relation to a few individual children the nurses are not in a position to provide that solid personal background which small children so much need if they are to grow up into happy and sociable human beings. For the same reasons changes from one foster-mother to another are at all costs to be avoided.

If on the contrary the organization is planned

so that the women helpers are appointed not as nurses to an institution but as foster-mothers to particular children the dangers we are concerned with would be largely avoided. The foster-mother would be with her little family during the day as their ordinary mother would. She would get them up and dress them, give them their meals, play with them, bath them, tuck them up for the night. It is in these everyday activities that emotional bonds are forged between a grown-up and a child. Naturally the foster-mother would want the help of a nursemaid like any other mother with several young children. The nursemaid could be quite inexperienced and untrained, but would be capable of doing much of the heavier work and, with guidance, of looking after the children when the foster-mother had time off. Moreover the new Nursery Centres which are being set up in various areas should give the foster-mothers, whether married women in the country or specially appointed workers, some rest from their labours during the day.

Finally the question of the mothers' visits is an important one. In some hospitals mothers are not encouraged to visit their small children because of the tears shed on their departure. It is certainly inconvenient for the nurses and also distressing for the children, but this does not necessarily mean that it is bad for them. Indeed, experience suggests that it is the children who are not visited and who consequently forget their parents, who, in the long run, fare the worst. The younger the child the more frequent the visits should be, and even for children of three, visits should not be less frequent than monthly. These regular visits will not only smooth the way for the return home after hostilities have ceased but will go far to maintain the normal emotional contact between mother and child which it is believed is of such outstanding importance for the welfare of the little child.

To sum up, therefore, we should recommend :

(1) That suitable accommodation should be provided in reception areas for those mothers who are willing to go with their younger

children. Such accommodation should not be in other people's houses, but should provide the evacuated mother with a little home of her own either in an empty cottage or as part of a community of mothers and children in a large house.

(2) In the case of children whose mothers cannot leave the danger areas, every effort should be made to arrange for them to go either to friends or relations already in a safe area or with friends who are themselves being evacuated.

(3) Where this cannot be arranged it should be considered whether the child is not better off with his mother in an evacuation area than in a reception area with a stranger. Babies under two years old should on no account be evacuated to the care of strangers.

(4) If small children are evacuated without either mothers or friends, every possible care should be taken to see that they remain in the care of one person during the period of their evacuation. To this end it is suggested that as many children as possible should be placed in families with willing foster-mothers, but that where special workers are employed these workers should be appointed as foster-mothers to particular children instead of as nurses to a large group of children. In this way it is hoped to encourage a sense of personal interest and responsibility to individual children amongst the helpers.

(5) Every encouragement should be given to mothers to visit their little children regularly, if possible at least monthly.

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The Deprived Mother

D. W. Winnicott

Director of the Children's Department,
Institute of Psycho-Analysis

LIFE has plenty to offer a woman beside motherhood. It is true, however, that the evacuation scheme chiefly affects those who have made their family their chief concern. Parents are specially attuned to child-care, even if only temporarily, and to understand the problems of the mothers of children who have been evacuated it is necessary first of all to recognize that feelings in general about children are not the same as the special feelings of parents towards their own children.

What makes life worth while for many men and women is the experience of the first decade of married life, when a family is being built up, and while the children are still in need of those contributions to personality and character which the parents can give. This is true generally, but it is particularly true of those who manage their household themselves, without servants, and of those whose economic position or educational standard sets a limit to the quantity and quality of the interests and distractions available for them. For such parents to give up the daily and hourly contact with their children is likely to be a serious trial.

One mother said, 'We would give up our children for three months, but if it is to be for longer, perhaps even for three years, what is the point of life?' And another said, 'All I have to care for now is the cat, and my one distraction is the pub'. These are calls for help which should not go unanswered.

Most tales about parents whose children have been evacuated show no appreciation of this simple truth. For instance, the opinion has been expressed that mothers are having such a good time, being free to flirt, to get up late, to go to the cinema, or to go to work and earn good money, that they will certainly not want to have their children with them again. No doubt there are cases on which this is fair comment, but such an idea does not apply to the majority of mothers; and when such comment is true on the surface it is by no means

necessarily true in a deeper sense, for it is a well-known human characteristic to become flippant under threat of a grief that cannot be faced.

No one would suggest that bearing and bringing up children is all honey, but most people do not expect life to be all sweet; they ask that the bitter part shall be to some extent of their own choosing, and then expect to get something valuable out of the experience of it.

The city-dwelling mother is asked, advised, and indeed pressed to give up her children. Often she feels bullied into compliance, not being able to see that the harshness of the demand comes from the reality of the danger. A mother can be surprisingly sensitive to criticism; and so strong is the latent sense of guilt about the possession of children (or of anything valuable for that matter) that the idea of evacuation first tends to make a mother unsure of herself and willing to do whatever she is told, regardless of her own feelings. One can almost hear her saying, 'Yes, of course, take them away, I was never worthy of them; air raids are not the only danger, it is my own self that fails to provide them with the home they ought to have'. It will be understood that she does not really feel all this, she only feels confused or stunned.

For this and for other reasons the first compliance with the scheme must not be expected to last. Eventually the mothers recover from the first shock, and then a great deal has to happen before the compliance can be said to have changed into co-operation. As time goes on the fantastic element in the situation changes, and the real elements gradually become clearly defined.

If one makes the attempt to put oneself in the mother's place one immediately asks the question: why, in fact, are children being taken from the risk of air raids at such great expense and trouble? Why are parents being asked to make such big sacrifices?

There are two alternative answers:

Either the parents really themselves want their children to be taken out of danger, whatever their own feelings, so that the authorities are merely acting on their behalf; or else the State puts more value on the future than on the present and has decided to take over the care and management of the children apart altogether from the feelings and wishes and needs of the parents.

As is natural in a democracy the feeling has been to regard the first alternative as valid.

For this reason evacuation has been voluntary, and has been allowed to some extent to fail, and for this reason there has been some attempt, even if a half-hearted one, to understand the mother's side of the question.

It is worth remembering that children are cared for and educated not only to give them a good time, but also to help them to grow up. Some of them will in turn become parents. It is reasonable to hold the view that parents are as important as children, and that it is sentimental to assume that parents' feelings should necessarily be sacrificed for children's welfare and happiness. Nothing can compensate the average parent for loss of contact with a child and of responsibility for the child's bodily and intellectual development.

It is claimed that it is the vastness of the problem and of the organization required to deal with it that limits the share that the parents can be allowed in such things as the choosing of billets. Most parents are able to see this. It is, however, the purpose of this article to point out that however much the vastness of the problem may tempt the authorities to make rules and regulations intended to be of general application, evacuation remains a matter of a million individual human problems, each different from the others, and each urgently important to someone. As an example, a mother may be a student of evacuation problems and in touch with all its many difficulties, yet she will not be helped by such knowledge to tolerate loss of contact with her own child's personality and daily needs and achievements.

Children change rapidly. At the end of the three years that this war may last many children will no longer be children, and all toddlers of the present day will have grown out of the stage of quick emotional development

into that of intellectual development and emotional marking-time. It makes no sense to talk of postponing getting to know a child, especially a little child.

Furthermore, mothers appreciate one thing that those who are not so close to the child are apt to forget, that time itself is very different according to the age at which it is experienced. A holiday which the grown-ups hardly noticed may have seemed like a huge chunk of life to the children, and it is almost impossible to convey to an adult the length of time that three years may seem to the evacuated child. It really is a big proportion of what the child knows of life, equivalent perhaps to 25 years in the life of an adult of 40 or 50. Recognition of this makes a mother still more anxious to lose nothing of her chance of motherhood.

Investigation, therefore, of any one detail of the whole problem of evacuation uncovers individual problems that are important, even urgent, in their own way.

Working now on the basis that the parents' ultimate wishes are represented by the authorities who are thus acting for the parents, it is possible to see what are the complications that are likely to ensue.

It is commonly believed, even by parents themselves, that all would be well if their children were to be well looked after; that the children, if they were sufficiently developed emotionally to stand the separation, might actually benefit from the change—they would experience a new kind of home, widen their interests, and perhaps get a contact with country life which is denied to town and even to suburban children.

There is no good in denying, however, that the situation is a complex one and that parents cannot by any means be relied on to *feel* assured of their children's well-being.

This is an old and familiar story, but one that seldom fails to upset and astonish those who have children in their care away from their homes. Parents readily complain about the treatment of their children while away, and easily believe any story a child may invent about ill-treatment and especially about bad feeding. The fact that a child arrives home from a convalescent home in the pink of condition does not prevent a mother from

lodging a complaint that her child has been neglected. These complaints on being followed up very seldom lead to the discovery of really bad homes ; similar complaints in the case of evacuated children's billets may be expected, and are natural enough if the mother's doubts and fears are taken into account. A mother is expected to dislike anyone who neglects her child, but she might quite as reasonably be expected to dislike anyone who looks after her child better than she does herself ; for such good care rouses her jealousy. It is her own child and quite simply she wants herself to be her own child's mother.

It is not difficult to imagine what happens. A child comes home on holiday and quickly senses an atmosphere of tension when asked about some detail. 'Did Mrs. so and so give you a glass of milk before bed?' The child may be relieved to be able to answer 'no' and so to please mother without dissembling. The child is in a conflict of loyalties and is puzzled. Which is better, home or away? In some cases the defence against this very conflict has been prepared by refusal of food at the billet during the first and last days there. If the mother shows quite a lot of relief the child is tempted to add a few details imaginatively. The mother now begins really to feel that there has been neglect and pumps the child for more information. Tension is now high and rising, and the child scarcely dares look back to see what has been said. It is safer to stick to a few details and to repeat them whenever the subject is brought up. And so the mother's suspicion builds up until in the end she lodges a complaint.

The difficult situation arises from two sources, the child feels it would be disloyal to report happiness and good feeding, and the mother nurses a hope that the foster-mother compares unfavourably with herself. There are moments when a vicious circle of suspicion on the part of the actual parent and resentment on the part of the foster-mother may easily be set up. That moment past, the way is open for friendship and understanding between these potential rivals.

This may seem all very unreasonable to the outsider, who can afford to be reasonable, but logic (or reasoning that denies the existence or

importance of unconscious feelings and conflicts) is not enough when a mother has her child taken from her. Even though she really wishes to co-operate with the scheme, these unconscious feelings and conflicts must be given their due weight.

In the periods intervening between the moments of suspicion, mothers just as easily tend to over-estimate the reliability and goodness of the billets, and to believe that their children are safe and well cared for without knowledge of the real facts. Human nature works that way.

As a matter of fact nothing is so likely to arouse jealousy in the mother as the provision of exceptional care. She may be able to hide her jealousy even from herself, but if she has cause for worry lest her child be neglected, she has no less cause for worry lest her child shall get accustomed while away to standards which cannot be maintained after the child's return. This is especially likely to be true when this standard in the billet is only a grade higher than that in the home, for if the billet is a castle the whole experience is lifted into the realm of a dream.

The way in which little points can become magnified is illustrated by the following incident :

A mother complained about a foster-mother, and it turned out that the complaint was little more than this, that the foster-mother was generous and owned a sweet shop, whereas she herself not only could not afford to give the child a lot of sweets, but also withheld sweets because she felt they were bad for the child's teeth. Eventually the two parties became close friends.

These problems are not different from those of every-day life. When a relation or a friend is indulgent to a child the mother suffers by being forced into the role of strict and even cruel parent, and the home situation is frequently eased when a child meets firmness elsewhere.

It is a common experience during a consultation to hear a mother being stuffed up by her child with stories of the strictness and lack of understanding supposed to be met with at school, but then to see that anxiety is roused in the child by any mention of changing the

school. When it is suggested that mother or the doctor shall write and ask for some relaxation of rules or for deeper sympathy or a wider toleration of the child's foibles and symptoms, immediately the child protests that any interference would be disastrous. Not every mother can let the matter pass without a note written behind the child's back, as every headmaster knows. And not every headmaster can refrain from getting on to the high horse. We must not expect more of the mothers and the foster-mothers than we expect of the trained educationalist.

It will be appreciated that it is not wise to advertise to a mother the wonderful food the child is getting and all the other special advantages that the billet may have over the child's home. Nor is it wise to say (especially when it is true) that the child is happier in the billet than at home. There can be, in fact, quite a lot of triumph hidden behind such reports.

Yet parents expect and should surely receive reports, written without triumph and with the object of enabling them to continue sharing responsibility for their children's welfare. If contact is not maintained, imagination is apt to fill in details on a fantastic basis.

In a further study of the deprived mother, it is necessary to go beyond what she herself can be expected to know about herself. An important thing to be reckoned with is that a mother not only wants children, she also *needs* them. In setting out to bring up a family she organizes her anxieties as well as her interests so as to be able to mobilize as much as possible of her emotional drive to that one end. She may even be to some extent aware that she may value being continuously bothered by her children's crying needs, and this holds good even if she openly complains of her family ties as a plaguey nuisance.

She may never have given thought to this aspect of her motherhood experience until, when the children have gone, she first finds herself the possessor of a quiet kitchen, the captain of a vessel with no crew. Even if her personality has sufficient flexibility to allow her to adjust to such a new situation, this change-over of interests requires time.

She can perhaps take a holiday from her

children without any rearrangement of her vital interests ; but there is a period beyond which she can no longer do without someone or something that she feels to be worth while caring for and wearing herself out for ; she also begins to seek some alternative way of exercising power for a useful end.

In the ordinary way a mother gradually accustoms herself to new interests as the children grow up, but mothers are asked in the present time of war to accomplish this difficult process in a few weeks. It is not to be wondered at that they often fail, either becoming depressed or else illogically insisting on the children's return.

There is another side of this same problem. Mothers may have a similar difficulty in taking their children back after they have reorganized their interests and anxieties to deal with the experience of peace and quiet in the home. Again the time factor must be allowed for. This second reorganization may easily be more difficult than the first for there will be a period, however brief, on the children's return, in which the mother will have to pretend to her children that she is ready for them and needs them as she did before they went away ; she will have to pretend because, at first, she will not feel ready for them. Time is required for her to adjust her inner thoughts as well as the outer arrangement of the home to their reception.

For one thing the children really have changed, they are older and they have had new experiences ; and also she has had all sorts of thoughts about them while they have been away, and she needs to live with them a little while before she can get to know them again as they really are.

It is this fear of having to make a big and painful adjustment, with risk of failing in the attempt, that drives mothers to go and snatch their children from their billets, regardless of the feelings of those who, as likely as not, have done everything in their power for the children's good. It is as if the mothers are in a play in which they have been robbed and in which their clear duty is to rescue the children from ogres : as rescuers they reassure themselves of the existence and strength of their parental love.

If a complete account were to be given the special attitudes of the more abnormal mothers would have to be described. There is the mother who feels her child is only good when personally controlled by herself. Being unable to recognize the child's innate positive qualities she warns the prospective foster-parents to expect trouble, and cannot understand when the child is found to behave normally. There is the mother who runs down her child just as an artist depreciates his picture and is therefore the worst person in the world to sell it. She, like the artist, fears both praise and blame, and she forestalls criticism by her own undervaluation of her belongings. She has put her very best into the care of her children and depends on the children's successes for her own self-esteem.

Within the limits of this article I have tried to show that when a child is taken from parents the very strongest feelings are aroused.

Those who are concerned with the problems of evacuation of children must see the mothers' problems as well as those of the foster-mothers if they are to understand what they are doing.

To look after children may be hard and exacting work, it can feel like a war job. But just to be deprived of one's children is a poor

kind of war work, one which appeals to hardly any mother or father and one that can only be tolerated if its unhappy side is duly appreciated. For this reason it is necessary really to make the effort to find out what it feels like to be a mother stranded without her child.

Summary

1. When a mother is suddenly relieved of her children her whole life is thrown out of gear. Time is required for her to reorganize her interests satisfactorily.

2. She is helped by being accurately informed of the extent of the real danger of keeping her children at home.

3. She is also helped by knowing her child is to be well cared for in the billet, especially if she can feel, and can be allowed to feel, that she and the foster-mother are co-operating with each other.

4. Strong feelings are liable to be roused when children and parents are separated from each other. Jealousy and suspicion appear, as well as blind over-reliance. It is more valuable to study the causes of such feelings than to condemn them.

5. When children return home their mother has to make another difficult adjustment, one which will again require time.

Foster-Parents

Ruth Thomas

**Educational Psychologist to
The Central Association for Mental Welfare**

I HAVE before me a number of reports on billeting and rebilleting from workers all over the country and had hoped that certain common factors would emerge from them, and one would be able to say what are the main problems of billetters and foster-parents, and what experience has shown to be a useful line of attack on them. But the more I examine this saga of a nation of foster-parents and their adventures with other peoples' children, the further I find myself from those solid useful generalizations which one wants from any *résumé* of a practical problem.

If one could say truthfully that children are better not billeted above or below their normal

social status, or with elderly unmarried women, or in a childless family, or where the foster-parent is dubiously welcoming or neurasthenically inclined, or that peace is easier to maintain where parents do or do not visit their children, these would be simple and useful things to know. But on a carefully compiled register of specially good billets I find names of married and unmarried, young and middle-aged, childless and with children of their own, poor and middle class. Moreover, there are some slum children revelling in good homes and others resentfully overawed; there are children asking to be removed from homes where they are not wanted, and others asking to stay on, in despite of the foster-parents, incredible as that may

seem. There are foster-parents crying out that the parents take no responsibility for their children, nor are interested enough to visit them; and there are others begging for some defence against periodical parental visitations; and there are many thousands doing neither. As many foster-parents manage to keep their charges on eight shillings a week as do not manage, and there are some to whom the added 'spending'—not saving—power is a source of pleasure. Some have cheerfully and skilfully coped with the children's lack of clothing, and the unlimited requirements of enuretics, and even the infection of their own pre-school children with ailments physical and moral.

In short, then, there are few safe generalizations either about the material conditions or the personalities concerned in evacuation, and we are doing our best when we embrace the tradition of English case law, i.e. worry out each case in its special circumstances, and build up a store of particular precedents, helpful for future emergencies but defying codification.

This has already brought us to two fairly safe practical conclusions. Firstly, that the business of fitting children into suitable foster-homes is a skilled one, requiring a mind trained to see *behind* the reasons which people adduce for their difficulties, to know something of the clash of personalities which have made the difficulties insuperable. This conclusion does not fail to recognize the magnificent contribution which local workers with their intimate knowledge of the conditions and personalities of their own area have made to the problem which indeed, without them, would have defied solution.

In the second place, information about children and foster-parents must be of a more than haphazard kind. In the early days of evacuation children were rebilleted as much as six times by well-meaning but untrained workers, not indeed haphazardly, but with little insight into the reasons which cause this perpetual motion. Really to know the foster-parents, one must be in constant and close touch with them; that is, one must be a permanent worker in an area which it is possible to cover reasonably frequently. Direction from a central office is not enough.

The many—but still woefully too few—appointments of social workers which the Ministry of Health, in conjunction with Local Authorities, has made, has led to the setting up (in certain areas) of foster-home registers, from which billets for specially difficult children are chosen, and for which special allowances are payable.

It is not possible to know all the children in one's area, but an important step was taken in this direction by the Bradford Education Committee, the report of whose social worker, loaned by the Child Guidance Council, is now available.¹ Eighty-five cases of billeting difficulty in the area were visited, and the reception billeting officer, the receiving householder, the school at present attended, the Bradford (evacuated) home, and the child were interviewed. The fivefold approach was found necessary because of the unreliability of accounts of evacuees' behaviour. This unreliability was found to consist not only in gross exaggeration but in complete falsity to fact. In practice it was found that investigation of any case along these lines gave rise to a full knowledge of the situation.

'In the second wave of evacuation which took place at the beginning of November it was found possible, in conjunction with the School Medical Department and the Superintendent of the School Attendance Department, to inform the Reception Officers in advance of those children who might be expected to give trouble in various ways. A list of these children was sent to them . . . in order that they should be able to select specially suitable billets.' In conclusion the reports states: 'It has been found possible to billet every type of child, however difficult.'

Many children who failed to stay in the first wave of evacuation returned and were happily billeted in the second. Many foster-parents who found things difficult at first succeeded on being given a second chance.

It can safely be admitted that the foster parent situation is one of special emotional difficulty; but this can be minimized by a careful consorting of the personalities of the foster-parents and the children. In the first place evacuation meant to the foster-parents an

¹ *Education*, December 1939; worker Mrs. Henshaw.

invasion of privacy and possessions and a great deal of added work, poorly paid. Some people did not mind either of these things. The added work on the whole falls on the women folk, the invasion of privacy seems to have hit hardest men to whom home is an escape—from noise and mental exertion. Hence the disturbed foster-mother's constant, and I think sincere, plea, 'My husband thinks it is too much for me', or 'My husband wants his rest'. Such an invasion can only be made tolerable by a mutually affectionate relationship between the child, the parent and the foster-parent, and everyone's willingness to admit that he is getting something from the arrangement as well as bringing something to it. It is, however, harder for most people to admit that they are receiving benefits than that they are conferring them, but if even one of the trio is mature enough to admit his gain, the situation is eased for the others, and each becomes less inclined to emphasize his own contribution and sacrifices. When there are no admissions of mutual benefit, there is the inevitable competition to overestimate one's own sacrifices and the benefits others have derived from them; and recriminations though unexpressed are not far below the surface. Intuitive recognition of the worth of one's work is, after all, the petrol of the human social machine.

One felt quite early that, for the foster-parents pride of ownership in the children would be the incentive to their efforts. This extended itself to their clothing, their health and to the foster-parents' general management of the evacuation situation, in most cases with great benefit to the child. A north country woman with two sons in the war told me quietly, 'I should be lost and lonely without the children.' She was wise enough too to see another source of her own satisfaction in a quite unbelligerent class consciousness. (This later led to her giving over a room in her house to a small teaching unit.) 'I'm a working woman and these are working children. We ought to keep the life and education we have gained for them.' In one case a foster-parent whose own family was grown up was paying six shillings a week to maintain the foster-children whom the parents, unable to make the required contribution, and careless of their children in

any case, would otherwise have withdrawn. She said, 'How long will it be before they could be really mine? I'd fight tooth and nail for them, you know.'

It is probably true on the whole that when the foster-parent recognizes that his own life has been enriched the situation presents fewer difficulties and is easier to handle.

Why is it so hard for us to admit unreservedly to enjoying personal relationships? Perhaps because the morality on which we are nurtured aims basically at goodness through service and we are taught that it is better to give than to receive. Perhaps because the undemonstrative puritanism of our mothers was such a disappointment to our childish desire for affection and notice that we will have no further truck with these primitive desires. Perhaps because we fear that to admit happiness is to provoke destiny to take it from us. Be this as it may, there are more foster-parents enjoying their children than admit to it, and the happiest homes are those who know the children have brought something to them. For the others, while permitting themselves less recognition of enjoyment, are inclined to expect greater recognition of their virtue. A spinster lady of no means, luxuriating in six foster-children, was hurt and indignant because one of the children's mothers utterly failed to comment on a purple velvet dress she had made with great devotion for the child. The parent, unable to provide such a garment, surely realized this foster-parent's pride in manifesting so much greater care for—and therefore perhaps her greater right to—the child, and she not unnaturally decided not to add any more to the satisfaction which the foster-parent had already attained. It was not lack of sympathy which prompted my reply to the foster parent's remark, 'I don't look for gratitude, but I ask you, what need had I to do so much for the child?' I said, 'Perhaps you wanted to do it very badly.'

The foster-parent was unnerved by that parent's visit, but she was equally resentful of another parent who failed to visit at all. She felt that there was no recognition to be got for her work in either way. I am not suggesting that human nature can do without recognition, and there are few of us mature enough to get

our sole joy from satisfaction in the job we want to do. Here then is the social worker's part, to give recognition, and if it is wise, explain the parents' sometimes jealous reactions to the foster-parents. The results are nearly always worth while. I did find a foster-parent who came to laugh at herself over this: 'Alice is one of us', she said, 'and when her mother comes down or keeps sending things we get mad and need a Solomon to chop her up between us', adding ruefully, 'Not that that would do much good'.

Such over-strong unadmitted desires for recognition have their effect on the children as well as on the mothers. Children have preferred to steal fruit and sweets freely offered to them rather than admit a further obligation which they felt took it out of them both ways. Of course this is sometimes also the outcome of a refusal on the child's part to admit any sense of obligation, a refusal similar in origin to that of the foster-parents. Where the child, the mother and the foster-parent all have the same emotional problem the situation is indeed too tangled to unravel and rebilleting becomes essential. In one such case a mother totally unable to delegate her interest in her child to the foster-parent, had her elder daughter transferred from another billet, with instructions to the householder that this girl was in charge of the younger child and she herself need take no responsibility. The householder, not unnaturally, clung to her obligations.

Much of what has been said so far applies only to those whom the war found with less emotional interest than they needed or those who have unlimited need of this type of satisfaction. There were, however, the vast number whose lives were already full—with family, possessions and social life. Had they been perfectly free to choose, many of these people would not have taken evacuees. They became foster-parents under pressure from authority or from a sense of moral obligation in a national emergency, or from a purely temporary burst of war zeal. Amongst the latter were a number of elderly folk, ill fitted to bear the boisterousness of young children. Had it been possible for the children to fit into the scheme of their lives without displacement, all would have been well, but adjustment

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in human relationships other than purely formal ones, must generally be mutual and can usually be achieved where the advantage of the relationship is mutual. In most cases where the foster-parents already had a full life, any possible advantages to them would have been of the intangible kind, and needed quietly seeking with a philosophic spirit. Such a spirit is perhaps difficult to achieve when your pre-school children, who in the normal course of events might have escaped moral and physical contagions for some years to come, fall victims to them, or when your house and possessions, 'scraped together after years of saving' suffer serious onslaught. This spirit of an ordered life is perhaps typical of middle class and of village life. The sanctity of possessions has been achieved here and was an outright provocation to many children, dependent from the nature of their upbringing on close living, and thereby starved of privacy and possessions. The Bradford report comments on this situation :

'The effortlessness of the slum dweller does not seem to be a quality contributing to the adaptability required for evacuation.'

I do not know where to put the emphasis here. Is this primarily an emotional problem of the middle class householder whose wanderings from primitive Christianity have been too far to enable him to neglect his goods for the sake of the poor? Or is the problem primarily one of the child's upbringing? and does its solution lie in allowing him a little secure unmolested hoarding of private possessions, so that he may learn respect for the possessions of others? The practical problem lay where the child with no respect for private property met the over-possessive adult. The householder was unable emotionally or economically to meet the ravenous demands of the slum child, and the more she withdrew herself and her possessions, the more tenacious was the onslaught.

It was in a situation like this that I met an outstanding case of an adolescent girl revelling in her new life while at the same time being mercilessly provocative towards the foster-parents who gave critically and with a sense of obligation. Amongst other things, the foster-mother shared her hot water bottle with

her, usually retrieving it when the girl was asleep. The child hit on the uncomfortable idea of lying on it to make this impossible—all hopelessly annoying and mysterious.

A similar problem of *national* tenaciousness has occurred in parts of Wales. There has been here a severe practical problem in that in some cases foster-parent and evacuee had no common language; and where native children do not learn English till junior standard, the problem was aggravated. There was in addition, however, a feeling not necessarily overt, that such wholesale arrival of evacuees was an attack on national culture and insularity, which in some instances was resented in the Celtic manner. There is a link, as is evident, between the insular possessiveness of the Celt and that of the middle class, which indicates that the millenium will not arrive solely through economic reorganization, and that some radical psychological reorientation must be sought by means of education.

The same tenaciousness is evident in habits and ideas. Closed village communities brought suddenly up against differences in manners, speech, dress, amusement, tastes in food, and morals, dogmatically and unerringly preferred their own home-grown article to which the stability of their own lives was bound. So for that matter did the evacuated. It is not surprising that in this field moral differences bulked large, and that some householders faced with a looser morality grew unreasonably fearful, even to the point of aggressiveness.

It is this fear and anger which indicate where the real emotional problem lies. It is open to all to disagree, and many sound foster-parents set about a thorough re-education of their charges, with a quality of insight that will always amaze me. (It was so reassuring to find psychological principles which the experts have argued for years, simply understood and accepted by the ordinary man.) But more than one rebounded from the unaccustomed, shocked and as though bitten. One childless household with two foster-girls, learning that one of them had been the victim of a sexual episode four years ago, sent them both away at once. There were from other adults shocked complaints about 'dirty language'. One realizes that here is not a wholesome humane goodness

but a bolting from what is bad with a child's fear of the evil he has recognized secretly and cannot understand in himself. This might be eased by a sounder and more open moral training in our senior schools. By this I do not mean pottering with sexual instruction on physiological lines, but a franker acceptance of the sexual interests of our adolescents in literature, in their clothing, in films and the amusements they choose and those we supply, so that sexual things may be so recognized as valuable in life that abnormalities arising in them are to be handled and dealt with, not silently backed away from.

In remarking on the emotional problems of foster-parents I am afraid I may have given two wrong impressions. In the first place I do not think that foster-parents, who are after all a good cross section of the population, have taken their job lightly or created unnecessary difficulties. Foster-parents have been untiring in the care and attention and affection they have given to the children, often at great cost to themselves in energy and financial expenditure. The difficulties are those of ordinary human nature placed in one of the most exacting positions possible. In fact, by struggling too long with them, and assuming more than they could cope with, some householders added considerably to the problem. They bore with their own emotions and the practical difficulties right up to breaking point. Then one was lucky if the hour when the children were left on one's official doorstep was not midnight. Workers everywhere now are encouraging householders to voice their grievances for redress, and are materially helping them to weigh up what they can cope with and avoid martyrdom at all costs.

In the second place, I do not think all the difficulties were psychological. Communal laundries, communal meal services for evacuated school children and their visiting parents, such as the W.V.S. Settlement has set up in Cheltenham; the withdrawal of defective children; mending and sewing clubs and the institution of play centres—these and many services we have not yet thought of will ease the strain and present solutions for quite material difficulties.

But the fact remains that those of us who thought about 'Children' and 'the patter of little feet' in a subdued pleasant fashion before evacuation, had rude shocks waiting for us about ourselves and our love of children. One foster-mother who wanted her billetee removed said to me regretfully, 'You know there are children whom you could tuck up and say good-night to', but she had had three different children in a month and none of them reached specification, or achieved 'tucking up'. There are indications, therefore, that the human element is still the most powerful in this situation, and that it has achieved so much, at a time when personal stability is hard enough to maintain in any case, does suggest that it is worth even further education and help.

We may summarize our conclusions then as follows :

(1) Successful billeting consists in putting together foster-parents and children who are mutually compatible.

(2) This requires both the skill of the trained social worker and considerable knowledge of local conditions.

(3) The difficulties may sometimes be great enough to suggest rebilleting, but in most cases a very great deal can be done in assisting the foster-parents to see where their own real difficulties lie and in appreciating the similar problems which beset the children and their parents. Such an understanding may take time and skill to achieve but is the basis of opening up a new 'home' for the children.

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ANYONE who has seen a coach or train load of parents met by their children will realize the joy that is brought by visits. It is more than joy, it is something nearer relief—relief from the strain of being parted. Although visiting has been officially encouraged by provision of special fares and excursions, yet some wonder whether it is wise, in so far as it certainly may disturb both the child and his parents and temporarily upset the equilibrium they have built up. Parting has meant considerable emotional readjustment to both parties, and in the majority of cases parents and children have managed to make this readjustment with more or less difficulty according to their different natures. Should it be subjected to the turbulent emotions that are bound to be roused by parents and children coming together again for a few hours every few weeks? Is it fair to the children? some parents ask.

The fact that it is upsetting cannot be the only criterion. If everything in life that roused one's feelings in an upsetting way were avoided, life would indeed be a poverty-stricken affair. A longer view is needed than this. For it must be born in mind that evacuation is not to last for ever; parents and children will be living together again, and a good contact must be maintained between them if the upheaval of reuniting in their homes is to be lessened.

Desires or deprivations of any kind can only be borne for a certain time; after that something happens in the mind: desires are no longer tolerated in consciousness, longings and love-feelings get buried, and only apathy remains and a feeling that can only be described as 'too late' is carried throughout life. The length of separation which can be endured without drastically altering the relationship varies from one child to another, from one parent to another, and so no general rule can be made as to the time-limits which are tolerable.

In extreme cases one comes across children who have been sent to boarding school over a

Psychiatrist to the Southampton Child Guidance Clinic

period of many years without seeing their parents. Here drastic changes often occur in the love feelings. Some of these children bury themselves in work to do away with feelings that have proved unbearable, and when this goes on for years their whole life becomes impoverished. The individual may unconsciously arrange his life so that work and other interests are built up only as defences against feeling. Sometimes this goes on indefinitely; at other times the buried feelings flood up and result in a breakdown. In all such cases the parental image has become weaker and weaker and the meeting after many years is virtually a meeting with strangers. Parents have the same experience but to a much lesser degree, because they have learned during the years that have led to maturity to manage their feelings, and to stave off to a certain extent present longings by the expectation of future satisfactions. The 'now' is not so all-important. We can thus see how important are visits which keep up contact between parent and child.

When parents visit they see the foster-mother and the foster-mother sees the parents. This makes of each a real person instead of a fantastic figure round which all kinds of feelings may be woven. 'Mrs. Jones must be an awful woman to have let her children do such and such . . .!' The children, too, may write home about certain practical difficulties, which the mother may be unable to understand from a distance, and the foster-mother only too quickly appears in the role of a cruel stepmother until they can meet and talk it all over. If the foster-mother and parents have friendly feelings towards each other it will be easier for them not to alienate the children in any way or divide their loyalties.

There is much to be said too for the provision of 'neutral places' for visiting, *i.e.* neither in the billet nor in the home. Here children will feel freer to confide in their parents some of the many puzzles or experiences which may have come their way. Also parents will not need to wander the streets in order not to

disturb those foster-parents who do not appear to welcome them.

Timing the visits is another thing which may need consideration ; a certain lapse of time in the beginning may better help the children to settle down. In any case, time has to be given for the sorrow of parting to give way to the discovery of new joys and interests.

A more complicated problem is that of the children visiting their own homes. In some instances, mainly among children of about twelve and thirteen years of age, it has been noted that after the Christmas holidays at home they have settled down much better in their billets. This can be partly accounted for by the fact that the second time of separation was a more deliberate choice than the first hurried rush. Again, for other children who had been imagining their homes in ruins, the actual sight of unharmed homes inevitably acted as a reassurance and checked untrammelled imagination.

With the younger children there is yet another side to the picture. A great deal more adaptation and training may have had to take place with them than with the older children before they were able to fit into their new homes. This adaptation easily becomes upset with frequent home visits. If children have lost all newly-acquired habits and possibly have also become verminous again it is very disheartening for the foster-parents and causes

friction between them and the children. Yet one must also consider how unhappy a younger child may feel if he is left behind in the reception area while his older brother or friend, who is living in the same house, goes home.

On the other hand, to visit home and leave it again is more of an ordeal than continued absence. The sight of the parents in the new surroundings of the billet is one thing, but when children see their parents living an ordinary life in their familiar homes, they become aware of their own place in the picture and of the gaps which their absence must make. This is the reason why such a large proportion of children who went home for Christmas did not return to their billets. In spite of this, it is a good general policy to allow homes to be visited during holidays.

To sum up—I should like to recommend that :

- (1) Visits of parents to children at regular monthly intervals are desirable.
- (2) That those visits should not begin too early, say not for three or four weeks after the child has been evacuated unless acute distress goes on manifesting itself.
- (3) That places be provided in the reception area where parents and children can meet outside the billet.
- (4) That older children but not younger ones should be permitted to go home for holidays while possible.

CONFERENCE OF THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

(open to non-members)

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Stockwell Training College, The Old Palace, Bromley

29th—31st March

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SUNDAY —1. **Education in Wartime.** 2. **After the War !**

Among the speakers will be *Dr. John Bowlby* (Psychiatrist, Child Guidance Training Centre, Cambridge), *Mr. J. Compton* (Director of Education, Ealing), *Mr. W. B. Curry* (Dartington Hall), *Mr. Henry Morris* (Education Secretary, Cambridgeshire), *Professor Brian Stanley* (University of Durham), *Dr. H. Stead* (Director of Education, Chesterfield), *Miss Ruth Thomas*, *Dr. Sybille Yates* (Psychiatrist to Southampton Child Guidance Clinic).

All members of the N.E.F. will receive a detailed announcement of the conference ; non-members should apply to N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

The Teacher's Problems

Marion Milner

**Author of 'The Human Problem in Schools' ;
Visiting Psychologist to the Girls' Public Day
School Trust and other schools**

WHEN a great social experiment such as this compulsory migration of the city dweller to the provinces and country is forced upon us, there are two quite different ways of talking about the results. Both ways are necessary at different times. One way is to concentrate on the advantages and concern oneself with making the best of it. The other way is to face the difficulties and count the cost honestly and squarely. Teachers, of all people, are most accustomed to making the best of things. It is their job even in peace time to try and make the best of their pupils, so they also tend to make the best of the evacuation scheme, and they will talk most easily of the successful side of it. A determined cheerfulness is certainly one way of facing difficulties, but if one fails to keep clearly in mind the distinction between what one *says* about a situation, on grounds of maintaining the morale of the group and what one *feels* about it, then inner strains are liable to develop which show themselves in indirect ways, such as lowered vitality, impaired physical or mental efficiency. Actually, this problem is ever present for the teacher even in peace time, for particularly in girls' schools the teacher is expected to show that she upholds and shares certain moral attitudes and standards of conduct and praiseworthy feelings, for the sake of example to the children. In other occupations also, one has often to sink one's private views in an official attitude, but the attitudes in question are less personal, less deeply concerned with the mainsprings of behaviour. The following is an attempt to describe what seem to be some of the real feelings of teachers about the difficulties of the present situation, feelings that are sometimes directly expressed, sometimes only implied under a covering of official attitudes.

The anxieties associated with sudden separation from family, friends, familiar ways of living, and the worry of extra financial burdens and uncertainty about the future, are by now

familiar to us all. But these upheavals appear to have a peculiar significance for teachers, inherent in the very nature of their profession. For the teacher's job is primarily that of helping the young to establish control over themselves, control of movements and actions and thoughts and feelings, to establish skilled directed activities of body and mind in place of impulsive, uncontrolled, undirected behaviour. In the ordinary way the teacher tries to establish these kinds of control in two main ways, routine and new experience. The way of routine is based on the principle that with sufficient repetition any kind of behaviour becomes increasingly easier ; but to make such repetition possible the external conditions must be fairly stable and uniform. Also the new experiences must be introduced gradually and according to plan.

Thus in one aspect the evacuation of school children strikes at the very basis of the teacher's work, since learning control depends on practice in repetition of the same situation rather than on the continual facing of new ones. For instance, take the case of a day school of middle-class children aged about 7 to 13, suddenly transformed into a boarding school. The children who were practised in the control necessary to get themselves to school every day by bus, train, or bicycle and who were accustomed to spending their free time in ways that were determined by their home surroundings (other members of the family, their own possessions, toys, gardens, pets, friends living near, and so on) are suddenly faced with entirely different conditions, for which they have no practised response. Their constant companions are now crowds of other children equally at a loss, and all equally separated from those on whom they have hitherto been primarily dependent for control—their parents. Instead, the only stable element in their surroundings is provided by their teachers, who are over-burdened with work, and whose attention must be shared with

so many other children that the sense of a controlling presence is necessarily much weakened. The result is inevitably a tendency in the children to go back to earlier, more childish modes of behaviour.

So the problem arises, for instance, that after parents' visits, numbers of children may be repeatedly sick from their inability to stop eating the sweets brought to them, or repeatedly in trouble for smuggling sweets against the school rules. Also the problems of destructiveness and aggression arise: borrowed furniture is perhaps damaged, voices get louder and harsher, while meals are liable to become occasions when the tendency to grab is particularly stimulated; for the anxiety about having to share with dozens of others things that up to now have been one's sole possession, or at most shared with three or four, may at times become almost overwhelming. A teacher who selects some normally responsible twelve-year-old, who was reliable and capable in the day-school situation, may find that the child cannot now be put in charge of a table to see that all get their fair share; for the sudden need to share with so many (when one is in fact also bereft of the certainty that one's own vital needs will be satisfied, owing to the sudden break with the fundamental source of satisfactions, one's home) seems to cause many children to slip back to the impulsive greeds and possessiveness of infancy. Incidentally, some children who have never lacked for anything in the way of food or clothes or pocket money, show sudden anxieties about rationing which indicate clearly the nature of their deeper emotional problems; for the fear that they have forfeited their right to life's necessities through their inability to control their own greed, resentment of authority, destructive anger, is often not very far beneath the surface, though it is usually too terrifying a thought to be directly expressed.

I have not mentioned the beneficial effects on many children of the escape from cramping home conditions, over-fond parents, and the like; these undoubtedly occur, but here the problem under discussion is the difficulty, rather than the advantages, of the evacuation scheme, and the impact of the children's difficulties on the emotional life of the teacher.

These failures of control in their charges are apparently liable to touch the roots of their own emotional life, and the deeper aspects of their own self-respect in their profession. In choosing to become teachers they have in fact ranged themselves on the side of authority and of whatever are the controlling forces within the mind.

Obviously, there are many different factors leading people to become teachers, varying between the two extremes of an overwhelming sense of vocation and a drifting into the profession because one was clever at school, wanted to go to college and could think of no other way of getting there. But, whether wholeheartedly or casually they have all in fact put themselves in the role of authority over others, as compared for instance with those who have chosen more impersonal forms of work, with things rather than with people, or a relationship of equality or serving of others rather than one of authority over them. Actually, many teachers have mixed feelings about this rôle, even in normal times: they often wish to hide the fact that they are teachers when mixing in social life; they say, 'People expect us to tick them off—and I'm afraid some of us do'. But in times such as these, when the whole question of order and principles, or the lack of them, is shaking the very basis of our civilization, the emotional reverberations of the problem become much more intense. Thus one teacher deals with it by escaping from the rôle altogether; she seizes the opportunity of moving to the country for changing from being the teacher of her children to being their cook. Another longs to do the same thing, but circumstances prevent it. A master moves from a conventional school to a 'free' one in which his rôle as authority is very much less in evidence.

For those who remain in their chosen rôle, there are many new experiences to be digested that inevitably revive the original emotional situations which determined their choice of teaching. For many teachers of academic subjects the life of ideas seems originally to have represented both an escape from and means of controlling the bodily and emotional aspects of life. The clever girl of poor family finds she can escape from a life of domestic drudgery

through developing her intellectual gifts. Both she and the clever boy often find that ideas can be neatly manipulated and controlled, thus giving a sense of security and power to compensate for the upsurging and overwhelming quality of emotional and physical life. For years skilled teachers of Latin or Mathematics may have remained safe in their citadel of the intellectual life; now evacuation brings them back with a jolt to the cruder aspects of living; they have, for instance, to take their turn at dealing with the results of excessive sweet eating, or at nursing the children who are ill. To some this extension of the relationship to their children from the intellectual sphere to the physical is a source of added interest and satisfaction; they find a far greater understanding of the children and the latter enjoy the discovery of the staff as 'real ordinary people'. But to some, being forced to deal with the physical aspects of life for their children arouses the fears of physical and emotional uncontrol in themselves, fears that they dealt with in their own childhood by turning away to the interests of the academic world. Some cope with this fear in the present emergency by a determined effort of will, regardless of the inner strain. Others express it in outbursts of criticism of the children, outbursts which by their vehemence suggest that the feeling has a personal basis and that there is more than professional interest involved.

Not only do outbursts of uncontrol in children rouse in us echoes of the struggle by which control of our own emotional life has been achieved, but also this is tremendously reinforced by the spectacle of greed, hate, anger and destructiveness breaking loose in the world at large. Amongst teachers, doubts about the efficacy of methods of control in general are inevitably aroused and with this come anxieties about the effectiveness of their work as educators. These doubts become accentuated by the inevitable comparisons that arise when hitherto self-contained groups are brought into intimate contact with others. Instead of being surrounded by one's friends and colleagues of long standing who have come to take the best and worst of one's qualities for granted, there is the need to be continually on trial with strangers, with all the consequent rivalries and com-

parisons that this involves. Underneath the external determination to be helpful the country dweller judges the town dweller and not always sympathetically. And again it is the behaviour of the children that is the starting point and which reflects upon the teacher's own belief in himself or herself; for instance, a country foster-mother writes

'I am still puzzled and rather horrified to find that there *are* such differences in standards, that so many children are allowed to grow up with such bad habits. It isn't only table manners and bed-wetting—this was terrible in our village—but awful language, ugly voices, complete lack of self-control and of discipline all round. I'd no idea that children in the cities were so badly taught and trained. What are the parents doing to let them grow up like that? Don't the schools teach them any of these things?'¹

Although no one knows better than the teacher how bad home-conditions can interfere with the work of the schools, there is still the thought that the children's lack of control is in part the school's fault, or at least the school's responsibility to change. And not only are evacuation conditions liable to produce doubts about the value of their training in matters of general conduct; for amongst secondary school children there is no doubt that in many cases the general level of the children's work is affected. Undoubtedly some children are working better away from the distractions of city life; but for many the enforced separation from their usual libraries and laboratories, the shortening of school hours where school buildings have to be shared, in addition to the less tangible difficulties of the general atmosphere of uncertainty have made it difficult to keep up a uniformly high standard of work. Thus for some teachers there arises the difficulty of finding reassurance as to the quality of their own work through the high standard of their pupils' achievements; for there is no doubt, however much it may be officially denied, that examination successes of their pupils do contribute very largely to the teachers' own self-esteem, self-confidence, and professional standing. Actually we shall not know till the end of

¹ From a letter to Dr. Susan Isaacs published in *Home and School*, December 1939.

the first school year of war how the examination successes of the evacuated schools compare with those which have been able to stay at home, but many teachers are already reporting that the lowered standard of work is apparent.

In addition to these sources of anxiety there is another for those whose schools have been split up and merged into different country schools ; for there is the loss of sense of personal worthwhileness that comes to many from being identified with the work of a large institution. Many teachers, especially heads of schools, have given up the best part of their lives to the development of their schools as independent entities ; and though teachers are naturally not unique amongst professional workers in seeing what they have built up destroyed by the war, it is necessary to take into account the emotional effect of this loss, when considering the nature of their present task. For some there is also the added discomfort of knowing that the often admirable buildings they have left behind, which were the pride of their lives, well-equipped laboratories, domestic science rooms, and the like, are being used for war emergencies with no regard whatever for the rights of the true owners. Further there are for many all the petty complications and disorganizations resulting from being under the jurisdiction of two authorities, the city educational authority and the local one. All these factors, both little and big, contribute to feelings of doubt of one's own worth, to a sapping of confidence in one's own power and efficiency, just at a time when more demands are being made upon that efficiency than ever before.

In addition to these worries concerning the status and ultimate effectiveness of their work, there are the problems of their home lives. Teachers who have members of their family to support are often faced with the financial difficulties of keeping up two establishments, and some are faced with the possibility of losing their work altogether, owing to the reduction of staffing necessitated in some schools through the scattering of pupils. Thus the possibility of not being able to continue carrying out their financial responsibilities contributes to the deeper feelings of doubt about their own worth, doubt about their capacity to 'make good', to contribute constructive love in the

face of the destructive greed and hate displaying itself in world affairs. Usually these doubts are not directly expressed or recognized for what they are ; sometimes they appear in the form of over-harsh criticism of the children's greed and uncontrol ; sometimes as criticism of colleagues who are accused of not shouldering their fair share of the burdens ; sometimes as criticism of educational authorities or the government. Naturally there are in many cases objective grounds for such criticism, but to see only the objective facts is to see only one side of the problem. For some also the doubts about themselves are accentuated by the problems of living in other people's houses.

Not only are teachers faced with the need to be continually smoothing out the children's billeting problems, but many of them have themselves to face daily intimate contact with people who may have quite different standards of living and approach to life. Lack of privacy for their work is a prevalent difficulty, and only those who have tried to carry out concentrated intellectual work in a household where the needs of practical and active life are alone recognized will appreciate the difficulties to the full. 'No one to talk to' is also, in a sense, another aspect of this problem of lack of privacy, for where the needs of the life of the mind are not understood, its pleasures and problems are also not shared conversationally. Added to this, separation from one's chosen sources of recreation, music, lectures, libraries, gives to many a feeling of being less of a person than they were before. And since their work pre-eminently depends on an inner richness of personality this loss seems at times to add to their doubts about their own capacities for dealing with the present situation.

The conclusion then seems to be that anything that can be done in the reception areas to make the professional or private lives of teachers easier will help, not only the immediate need, but also in maintaining the general morale of the profession in the face of unprecedented difficulties. Such measures include both public and private effort. As an example of the latter, gestures of friendliness from local householders, such as invitations to informal meals at week-ends and in the evening, do much to ease the sense of loneliness

and isolation. The problem of lack of privacy for intellectual work can sometimes be solved if a well-to-do householder can lend a room, near enough to the teachers' billets, to be used as a communal work room. Also lectures, study groups, concerts, are greatly needed and can be arranged either by private individuals, local education authorities or such bodies as the Workers' Education Association. But such measures cater only for the leisure aspects of the teachers' difficulties. As regards the work aspects, much can be done by local effort in offering the teachers opportunities for widening their children's experience; for example, opportunities for the study of local

enterprises, farms, industries, and for excursions arranged by those country dwellers interested in local history and archæology. In this way the loss in academic education may in part be balanced by a gain in first-hand experience. But however much the private individual may help in such ways, the central problem remains an administrative one, that is, the need at all costs for each school to keep together as a unit; for if the schools as units are destroyed, there is also destroyed that thing of incalculable value which is usually termed corporate tradition: that is, the slowly evolved and established routines for working together.

Homes for Difficult Children

Theodora Alcock

**Child Guidance Officer,
Huntingdon**

IN the development of every child the interplay of feelings within the family is of major importance. Some children may be temperamentally sensitive, others of a more stolid type, but all who grow up within a family form emotional relationships towards father, mother, brothers, and sisters which, for good or evil, have a profound influence upon their later behaviour in the larger family of society. Therefore, in planning hostels for those children who cannot be accommodated in ordinary billets, it is wise to aim at conditions which approximate as far as possible to those of a natural family.

of children have been successfully rebilleted, and the home itself is a notably happy place.

Staff

The first consideration in engaging staff was to provide not only technical skill in handling difficulties, but as much motherliness as possible in order to compensate to some extent for the deprivation from which all evacuated children must suffer through separation from their parents.

The first superintendent in charge was a woman teacher, with training in child guidance methods and a wide experience of handling children, normal and abnormal. Alas, she was recalled later to her teaching duties in an evacuated school, but another excellent superintendent has taken her place. The matron (a State Registered Nurse) and the three domestic helpers are all London mothers with husbands in the Forces who wished to be near their own children that are billeted in the neighbourhood of the home. They all show real maternal tenderness to the children in their care. Perhaps this attitude can best be illustrated by an example. In the early days a newcomer, a frightened-looking little girl of 7, was seen standing miserably by a pool on the floor, her knickers also soaking: a passing kitchen helper was appealed to. 'All right,

Since September 16th, 1939, such a home has been established in Huntingdonshire. The house is a pleasantly roomy one, standing in large gardens that form ideal playgrounds. Twenty children, boys and girls of ages ranging from 5 to 13½, form the large family group here. They are admitted for a variety of complaints, from knife-throwing to bed-wetting, from depression to hysterical manifestations. All attend the village school, but in the home they receive treatment, both direct and environmental, that may fit them to return to their billets as satisfactory members of society. This mixture of sexes and ages was a bold experiment, but one which seems so far amply justified in its results; a number

duckie,' was the smiling response, 'we'll soon put that right.' The small girl rarely wetted again, and her symptom soon ceased. This maternal attitude is also indicated by the sadness of the staff when a child, who is apparently adjusted, leaves for a new billet. As one mother said, with tears in her eyes, 'It is like losing one of our own.' It is, of course, necessary to rebillet to make room for new cases.

In principle there should be male members of the resident staff, as father figures in the family group, but in practice it has been found very difficult either to find suitable men or to accommodate them. Their lack is compensated for by male volunteers who come in to help with gardening, carpentry, and the daily working of a gas engine.

Occupations and Treatment

The emotional maladjustment of the children admitted to the home was accompanied in the majority of cases by asocial or antisocial behaviour. None of them had been able to adapt happily to a foster-home, and most of them had a history of previous maladjustment in their own homes. Therefore, it was especially important to provide facilities, not only for individual development, but for informal group activities that would encourage each child to enjoy taking his part in the life of the family as a whole.

Group Activities

Most problem children require special outlets for aggression, these being doubly satisfying if they also produce constructive results. The large overgrown garden of this home formed an admirable field for such activities. To the surprised joy of both boys and girls, choppers were provided, and groups sallied forth to collect and cut up firewood—there were no accidents! At the same time the superintendent, working with the children, tried successfully to arouse an interest in gardening as such, and this led to increasingly skilled work, such as digging, planting out, mowing, etc. There were also very popular 'nature hunts' in which each child was given a leaf, flower, or insect, and had to find and name a similar one. The traditional games of country children seemed to be developed spontaneously

by the Londoners in their new surroundings; 'secret' camps of Red Indians and cowboys were constructed, camouflaged by bushes; and the making of bows and arrows became a flourishing industry. At first a good deal of adult supervision was necessary to protect the little ones, but surprisingly soon the elder children adopted the rôle of protective big brothers and sisters, and saw to it that newcomers respected this attitude. In every way possible this sense of family responsibility was encouraged to develop naturally. It was pointed out that the billeting allowance did not go very far, and it would be worth while seeing how it could be supplemented. On this, blackberrying parties set out, with strong competition as to weights gathered, windfall apples were collected from kindly neighbours, and all the children had a pleasantly messy but most profitable time in jam-making. The growing sense of family pride was evidenced by their insistence on taking pots of jam as gifts to the givers of the apples.

With the shortening days of winter there was an increase of indoor occupations, the majority of these also combining the essential qualities of aggression and construction. In carving wood or plaster models, and in potato-cut designing, for instance, the necessary cutting, *i.e.* destroying, of material safely liberates those angry, hostile feelings whose direct expression is intolerable—safely, because the aim of such work is creative and its end the joy of achievement. Some of the older boys also took on the job of decorating the very shabby premises, staining floors, painting chairs, and letting loose an enormous amount of energy in sand-papering before painting.

Remedial Teaching

As many of the children were backward in school and their emotional difficulties aggravated by this inferiority, a good deal of special teaching was given, mostly in the form of play. 'Reading, for instance, was developed by individual apparatus: by competitions involving drawing and painting as well as reading, or by making scrap-books which became the child's own reading book. Arithmetic was encouraged by play with ring boards, and in games of school, etc., and for the

little ones by conker strings'. (Superintendent's Report, November 1939).

Individual Treatment

Since physical and mental health are so closely inter-related, the physical condition of the children is carefully safeguarded by the medical officers of health. Under their direction also, every child receives direct psychological treatment, carried out by the visiting child guidance worker, mostly on the lines of individual play therapy. In such treatment there are brought to light the feelings underlying many behaviour disorders; hostile reactions may be due to underlying fears, especially the fear of being despised; unsociability may be the result of depression, or pilfering the expression of a compulsion to snatch from life a substitute for the love that is felt to be lacking.

Treatment of Enuresis

In the home which has been described there were for a long time an average of sixteen children who previous to evacuation and in their billets had been almost nightly bed-wetters, but in the home the average number of wet beds was less than two a night—striking evidence of the effect of environment on such cases. Factors of importance in this improve-

ment were probably the kindness and lack of fuss shown by the adults concerned and the use of certain practical preventive measures. Among these latter were the provision of warm beds, a chamber-pot for each child, night-lights for those afraid of the dark, mackintosh sheets, and for the more severe cases straw palliasses that could be easily cleansed and refilled. In some cases, too, fruit was substituted for fluid at the evening meal. The children were aroused at 10 p.m. by the matron, but in a way which made the necessary getting out of bed not a shamefaced parade, but part of a pleasant and comforting tucking-up, which helped them to go to sleep more happily afterwards.

The Spirit of the Home

Experience has shown that beyond all question the most important thing for these children is not the provision of good equipment nor external comforts, nor even special treatment, however desirable such things may be, but the cultivation of a corporate family spirit which will, at least in part, compensate for their present deprivation, and in the future enable them to achieve a life of greater mental ease and happiness within their own families, and in the world at large.

SOME PERTINENT PUBLICATIONS

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|---|---|
| <i>The Education of Evacuated School Children in Time of War</i> | . H.M. Stationery Office, 2d. |
| Board of Education Circular 1469, May 1939. | |
| <i>Schooling in an Emergency</i> | H.M. Stationery Office, 6d. |
| Board of Education Circular 1474, August 1939. | |
| <i>Nursery Schools for Children in Reception Areas</i> | |
| Board of Education Circular 1495. | |
| Ministry of Health Circular 1936. | |
| <i>School Health Services in War Time</i> | Addressed to Local Education Authorities. |
| Board of Education Circular 1490, December 1939. | |
| <i>The Schools in War Time : Physical Education</i> | |
| Board of Education Memorandum 11. | |
| <i>The Schools in War Time : Canteen Meals</i> | H.M. Stationery Office, 3d. |
| Board of Education Memorandum 3. | |
| <i>The Government Evacuation Scheme</i> | H.M. Stationery Office, 3d. |
| Ministry of Health Evacuation Memorandum 4. | |
| <i>The Government Evacuation Scheme (current version)</i> | H.M. Stationery Office, 4d. |
| Ministry of Health Memorandum 8, February 1940. | |
| (Enclosed in Circular 1965.) | |
| <i>The Children in War Time—How to Rebuild the Educational System (Lady Simon)</i> | W.E.A., 38a St. George's Road, S.W.1.
Price 1d. |
| <i>The Bed-Wetting Problem (Emanuel Miller)</i> | |
| Article in 'Mental Health', Vol. I, No. 1. | |
| <i>Some Psychological Difficulties of Evacuation</i> | |
| (Mrs. Henshaw's account of her work under the Bradford Education Committee.) Article in 'Mental Health', Vol. I, No. 1. | |

Book Reviews

Between the Lines. By Denys Thompson.
(Muller, 3/6.)

Local Services. By A. L. Strachan. (Cassell, 2/6.)

Civics (what a word!) was invented as a blanket term to cover two theories on the education of young democrats. One lot argue that training in the technique of straight thinking is of first importance, and the others plump for the learning of 'civic information'. (Neill, of course, stands outside the ring and jeers that it doesn't matter two hoots what they learn or how they think, as long as they *feel* all right.)

The two trends are well represented by these two books; Mr. Thompson's *Between the Lines* is a handbook on how to avoid crooked thinking, prejudice and irrational beliefs, and the part the Press plays in bemusing the citizen; Mr. Strachan in *Local Services* explains the work of a local authority and describes in detail each of the social services. (Which school of thought is correct, I leave the research student—or the reader—to judge.)

At any time *Between the Lines* would be an interesting book; at the present time, with newspapers little better than propaganda sheets, it is an important one. The general background of the Press in England is sketched in, and its influence assessed; the newspaper reader is then warned of what the proprietor, journalist, and advertiser are trying to do—what they're playing on, what they're playing for. Then comes a guide to propaganda, which takes the form of dozens of examples from the contemporary Press arranged under the following heads: Irrational Beliefs, Catchwords, Assumptions, Analogies, Advertisements Anatomized. Twenty-six pages of extracts for analysis are given at the end of the book. Quite impartially, Mr. Thompson picks examples from Left, Right, and Centre, quoting 'objective reports' of the Fall of Irun from four different newspapers. Teachers who want to do field work in Press analysis with their pupils will find this book very useful.

The author of *Local Services* is a graduate with experience as a city councillor. In 190 pages he not only describes all the branches of local government (housing, education, health services, etc.), but gives a short account of the historical growth of each. On the first page he displays a rate demand note and uses each item in turn as the starting point for a new chapter. There is a very detailed index, but the illustrations are rather dull. It can be recommended for every school library, as a reference book for the teacher giving talks on the social services, or as a class-book for 13+.

I know, of course, that it's a waste of time recommending either of these books to the majority of teachers, as they don't fit into the present curriculum. Well, so much the worse for the curriculum.

Denis McMahon

Do You Know

That once upon a time there was no free education in England?

How the pure water in your taps is brought down from the hills?

That fires once raged unchecked because there were no firemen?

Why our Police Force is the envy of all foreign visitors?

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by

A. L. STRACHAN, B.A.

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The Latest Fad—Basic Education. By J. B. Kripalani, *The Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Segaon, Wardha.* Pp. 102.

This book represents an attempt to expound Mr. Gandhi's 'latest fad'—Basic National Education—which has come to be known as the Wardha Scheme. The new elements in this Scheme are two : (1) that all education should be woven round a craft, (2) that the produce of the craft should be made economically remunerative so as to defray the recurring cost of education, the teacher's salary. What is new is not the ideals themselves so much as the wholeheartedness with which they are to be applied—on a nation-wide scale.

Mr. Kripalani possesses some of the qualities that one would expect to find in an advocate of a new fad ; admiration for and faith in the originator of the scheme and knowledge of his leader's mind, born of intimate association with him in his social and political work. What he lacks are practical experience of some aspects of the education he so freely criticizes and a calm logical mind. Educational theories, past and present, are known to him, but they do not seem to have formed the basic material of a personal philosophy of education. They are mainly words, whose 'tyranny' in modern life he so strongly condemns. Mr. Kripalani is much more interesting when he discusses the social implications of Gandhi's political philosophy ; here at least he is aware of the logician's retort. Our reply to Mr. Kripalani is not to assert that our modern education is beyond criticism or that the education that India receives is good, even of its kind. Some of the things that Mr. Kripalani has said about modern education are only too true, that, for example, it is often 'verbal, formal and artificial', but it simply is not true that the subjects of the curriculum are 'never concretely integrated or co-ordinated'. Even in India schools are catching the modern spirit in this regard. What may be contested is the assertion that 'education woven round a craft avoids this artificial separation and isolation of subjects'. The teachers of the new order in India need to be on their guard lest the new craft become a new 'subject'.

After reading this book, admirable in its spirit and devoted to a great cause, one is inclined to think that a much better case could be made out for Mr. Gandhi's scheme than that presented here. The Wardha Scheme is worth a serious trial, but it should not be tried until its social and psychological implications have been fully studied by those who have given deep thought to the best in modern education and have had some experience of its methods.

H. R. Hamley

The New Clarendon Geographies : The World ; a General Regional Geography. By J. H. Stemberge. (Oxford University Press, 6/-.)

To describe the whole world within the space of a single volume is not easy and the author has wisely

adopted the new practice of submitting sections of his excellent book to recognized authorities who have lived in the countries he describes. The text has also been subjected to constructive criticism by a number of specialist teachers in public and secondary schools. The result is that the book will find a place in the middle forms of secondary schools and particularly in school certificate classes.

The work is divided into seven sections covering the general geography of the world and the regional geography of the continents, with a short outline of the British Empire as an appendix. The section on physiography contains all that is needed in pre-matriculation work, while there is in addition, at the end of the first part, a new method of demonstrating map projections.

In order to keep the length of the book within reasonable limits, it has been necessary to curtail the regional sections, but with the possible exception of the sections on the British Isles and continental Europe the regional treatment is quite full enough for school certificate work. It is a pity that the term 'Equatorial Monsoon Region' has been introduced, for it can only cause confusion in the pupils' minds. On page 344 the Equatorial Forests are correctly described, while on page 346 a map is given with the equatorial forests of Africa labelled 'Tropical Forests'.

It must not be supposed, however, that there are many serious errors, for the book has been very carefully prepared. It is easy to read and contains a large number of interesting sketch maps. The new photographs which illuminate the text are of outstanding merit.

Leonard Cundall

Modern Man in the Making. By Otto Neurath. (Secker and Warburg, 16/-.)

Dr. Neurath, founder of the Museum of Social Sciences in Vienna and now Director of the International Foundation for Visual Education at The Hague, has devised a method of setting out facts pictorially which, as Professor Hogben puts it, 'combines all that is best in Descartes and the *Daily Mirror*'. The method has now been widely introduced and most of us are acquainted with it. In this new book we have it applied to no less vast a subject than 'the fundamental trends in the social, political and economic life of humanity'.

It is a formidable undertaking ! There was never a time when it was more important for ordinary thoughtful people to get some grasp of the way the world wags. And there was never a time when the relevant data seemed more overwhelming in volume and complexity. The easiest way of meeting the situation is to take firm hold of some 'philosophy' or comprehensive theory and, banishing from view all inconvenient facts, to interpret the course of events by devout reference to its tidy scheme. The world is well filled with people who are doing this, and girding their loins to banish from view all the inconvenient people who disagree with them. The

opposite method, that of trying to discover trends by a study of facts, is harder work ; it might be thought beyond the reach of any but experts with time to collect their facts. But it is on the ability and willingness of human beings to base our existence on facts, instead of on 'myths' and 'wishful thinking', that the hopes of civilization rest.

This is where Dr. Neurath comes to our aid. *Modern Man in the Making* is a fact book, to help us in our reading and thinking. The pictorial method enables us to see, after a brief study, a whole mass of facts and to extract from them their significance. The pictures are not 'illustrations'—like the statistics in political speeches ; they are as much meat and marrow of the book as is the text and they require to be read with as much attention. On the whole they succeed brilliantly in conveying compactly and memorably a body of facts which are of real moment.

The range of subjects covered is wide, without pretending to be exhaustive. The technique is a

particularly good one for making clear development, processes, fluctuations. Mortality, disease, living conditions, urbanization, the expansion of countries and empires, population, migration, the extent of mechanization, political organization, strikes, unemployment, production in peace and war—these are some of the topics. And an appendix of over twenty pages gives references to and quotations from stimulating books, which suggest further exploration.

The simpler books along these lines, designed for smaller children, seem to hit the mark. This is a much more advanced work. I should like to know from someone who gives it a fair trial with older children how far they take to it and how far it proves its worth in school. To me, as an adult trying to make sense out of what I have learnt and am still learning, it seems admirable.

V. Ogilvie

Training for the Mental Health Services in War Time

EXPERIENCE in the last war shewed that there was a new demand made upon skilled social workers because of the strain of the times. The first few months of the present war have already proved that the unsettled state of affairs gives rise to special kinds of individual and social difficulties in the civil population. The break up of family life ; the transfer of children to foster-families living in unfamiliar conditions, have already created a need for psychiatric social service. In many areas special Homes have had to be opened for children who are unable to settle down in their new surroundings. In others the service of an experienced worker has been needed to help in the readjustment of billets, or to obtain psychiatric advice for the more difficult child. It is well known that under war conditions the figures of delinquency tend to rise. It is therefore of the utmost importance that those social services designed for the prevention of delinquency be maintained and strengthened.

In our last number the London School of Economics invited applications for Commonwealth Fund scholarships for the Mental Health Course. The training is now carried on in Cambridge, where the School is temporarily housed at New Court, Peterhouse. The Commonwealth Fund, through the Child Guidance Council has generously provided for a Child Guidance Training Centre in Cambridge, and case material for practical training is made available through the courtesy of Addenbrooke's Hospital.

The training with adult patients is being carried out at an Emergency Hospital in a 'neutral' area outside London.

The School of Economics has been fortunate in being able to maintain the continuity of the training by thus arranging for students to work under the direction of the same psychiatrists and social work supervisors as they did before the war.

Those who are interested in the Course are invited to visit, by appointment, or to obtain further particulars from The Secretary (Mental Health Course), London School of Economics, New Court, Peterhouse, Cambridge.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Upon Reflection

Louie Le T. Swann

IT is six months now since I retired from 'active service' in the teaching profession. I entered the service in 1891 as a pupil teacher in a provincial Church School (now known as Non-Provided) and travelled by way of Infant School teaching (4 years), Girls' School teaching (1 year), College training in London (2 years), Church School teaching in an excellent residential area beyond London (1 year) and London County Council Services, all in Bethnal Green (40 years).

I have seen methods come, enter the limelight, fade and—disappear. One is tempted to wonder if there are people who think that education is something that 'a gadget' will bring! I suppose there are very few who read this article who remember the old 'Hand and Eye training', a time when seemingly intelligent people spent valuable time speculating whether 'superlaying' or 'mosaic' was the better method for a little simple paper work in colour. And possibly few remember Inspectors coming into schools, entering a class-room in which a teacher, single-handed, was endeavouring to instil a modicum of knowledge into the minds of some seventy-two children, and expecting to get her undivided attention while he advocated 'Motor Training'. When she gave a fraction of her mind to what he was saying (for none of the 72—left with nothing to do—should speak; that would be a mark of bad discipline) she discovered that the latest cry just meant nothing more than 'learning by doing'. And so plasticine came on to the educational market. Its advocates

didn't always stop to enquire whether pupils learned by doing (which some did) or whether they just 'messed about'; had their hands engaged, and were therefore less of a nuisance!

Later it became usual to hold conferences annually. In London these were held, I think, either at Birkbeck College, or the old County Hall, Spring Gardens. Sectional Training was the new method one year. Very ably was it advocated, but during the discussion a clergyman from the provinces said, 'Don't call it a new method. The teachers of the past, struggling with a class with an age group from 7-14 years, were obliged to adopt the sectional method, the section often being one child.' And so we were brought right face to face with the Individual Method long before the days of the Dalton Plan.

As I neared retirement I heard that 'the new technique' was in the air. When I enquired further I found that all the new technique amounted to was: 'There is no technique.' At first I felt cross because I knew there was a technique, but later, I thought perhaps there was less danger from this than from many 'gadgets'. For it did not attempt to offer a panacea for all the educational ills, but seemed to presume that if indeed the teacher *is a teacher* (that's the technique) then the method may safely be left to him—or her. With which I entirely agree, but many people have entered the profession of teaching who are not 'born teachers'; it is necessary therefore to try to implant some of the traits of the real teacher, both by lecture, by student

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training in schools, by putting the teacher in an atmosphere where the 'sympathy' that exists between the 'born' teacher and the pupil can be sensed, whatever the lesson, whatever the method, and whatever the equipment and building. The new phrase 'interest motive' doesn't need then to be stressed, for the teacher has the power to engender interest and to hold attention.

The real teacher or born teacher is the one who can enter into the feelings and thoughts and ways of children, and not expect children, because they're in school, to be wholly artificial people, content to 'let off steam' only when the school gates are out of sight.

I HAVE written this because it's good for us to remember what has been. But I must frankly acknowledge that in my hours of ease my mind has not been filled with long reflection upon teaching methods, but has been frequently occupied with visions of individual children. There was Lily. At seven years of age she would come into school at 9 a.m. and put her face to the wall and her back to her teacher. So anti-social was she that, if a cup of tea was brought into the room for her teacher and left, the teacher being on duty in the playground, Lily would pollute it—and say nothing. Every mistress in turn (being at her wits' end with 55 to 60 others to attend to) sent her out of the room. In my home as I write is a small black door rug that I prize. Into the canvas of that rug Lily stabbed her temper—and lost it, just as we lose our annoyance when we use a spade. I don't know that it was learning by doing. I hadn't time to give her a lesson upon (a) what canvas was, (b) where the wool came from, etc., etc., but I saw the joy that comes from achievement; I saw her eyes when the last bit of rug was sewn (not always well) to the canvas support. I saw, too, her mouth form a smile instead of its habitual straight thin line and a face look up into mine as if to say 'We know, don't we?'

The last I heard of Lily was when she came to see me at the age of 17. In the factory she had met a girl who had an aunt in the country and who took Lily there at week-ends. And Lily's last words to me were: 'I should like

to have a little cottage in the country one day. I like the country.'

Then, every day, I look at the beautiful rug, upon which my feet are resting as I write, which was a piece of corporate work by some twenty-four girls. That was handwork. A very beautiful and intricate pattern it is, and the colours well-blended, but if by chance the teacher of the class who made the rug reads this page she will remember the *number of times* that I said, 'I should not let them do any more now; it's so monotonous.' She knew the children enjoyed it; but I've always had my doubts about the real educational value of handwork; I *know*, I know well, the joy of making; the joy of seeing something emerge as a finished product; but to me the creation of a line of poetry, a verse, a description, can thrill, can start a train of thought—perhaps rug-making can—I don't know.

In my room is a calendar. How many years I've had it I can't say—more than fourteen. And here's how I came by it. I decided to enlist the co-operation of parents by sending home to them a list of the school rules, so that they should know what children were expected not to do. They knew many things they could do, by coming to school on Open Days. Each parent was asked to read the rules, and sign the sheet showing that he was aware of the things 'outside bounds'. Now Gladys broke rules galore. Next day she brought a note from father. I could tell by the glint in her eye and the 'watch her read this' attitude that she knew the contents of the note, which read thus: .

'Dear Miss,

Having read the rules I shall be glad to know if there is anything Gladys *can* do?'

I sent for Gladys at 12 noon and said, 'Can you take a very careful message to Daddy?' She answered, 'Yes'. 'Then tell him that when I read the rules to my sister, she said, "Oh, what a page of don'ts".' But I said, 'Yes, but I could fill a book—a big book—with all the do's.' Result: Daddy sent me a calendar, mounted, one that can be used year in, year out. And Gladys's twinkle, as she said, 'Daddy had sent this to you, it's too good for our house', was funny. Years afterwards a younger member of the same family

said to me, 'Miss Swann, have you still got the calendar?' I have. It reminds me daily that a sense of humour, a sense of proportion, are first necessities of the teacher's technique, whether in 1891, 1910 or 1940.

At tea-time, as I look at a simple hemstitched cloth, I find my mind going back through the stages of teaching hemming to infants—boys and girls—of under seven years of age. Eight stitches to an inch; then twelve to an inch in the lower standards of Girls' Department; then sixteen, and I'm not sure if the stage of fine work didn't go to twenty stitches to the inch; and then I think of the modern way of colour stitching for infants, not even called hemming, and the simple garments for juniors that combine pleasure with progress.

YES, whatever may be wrong with education to-day, whatever may be the next development, of one thing I am sure. Methods change but principles remain, and the great principle of Humanism entered the State Schools of this country before the last Great War. The introduction of the Medical Service in 1904 made us realize that education was more than instruction; that home conditions affected health of mind and body which in turn affect capacity to benefit from school education. Teachers have learned and are still learning that school education is but one part of a mighty process, the full training of mind and body. Viewed in this light, each school, club, Youth Welfare Centre, Evening Institute contributes its quota to Social Service. Perhaps one of the greatest joys granted to us is that of having been allowed, in some small measure, to participate in so great a work.

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WHATEVER its deficiencies—and they are glaring—the English Public School has never lost sight of the fact that it is character fibre and not certificates that decide the man in the last resort, and that such fibre is strengthened by individual action and responsibility. In spite of the difficulties of the moral and physical life associated with unisexual groups, a more generous understanding prevails than in former days. Were tradition less insistent, and individual freedom more respected, Public Schools could give the world not only a distinctive type, but a type of distinction almost beyond criticism. It behoves those keen for the nation's youth—and particularly for the mass that finishes its education at fourteen or fifteen in the Elementary Schools, the bulk of citizens of tomorrow—to create conditions somewhat related to those of the best Public Schools, wherein character can develop and strengthen.

Why do we compel children to attend school? The cynic might answer, to keep them out of the wet—most of them at any rate!—and off the roads. The Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers (1937) gives an admirable reason, quoted from the code of 1904-1926. It applies particularly to the Elementary Schools, but can well cover every educational institution concerned with young people:

'The purpose of the public elementary school is to form and strengthen the character and to develop the intelligence of the children entrusted to it, and to make the best use of the years available in assisting both girls and boys according to their different needs, to fit themselves, practically as well as intellectually, for the work of life.'

Character is thus defined officially as the first objective in the education of the young; but nowhere in that same Handbook, or in any other Board of Education publication, is there a practical scheme for its cultivation. Religious organizations console themselves

with the idea that their formulae are effective; but their schools are just as dead as the Council schools. Even the Hadow Report that led to the most radical change in organization since 1870—the formation of Senior Schools—did not face the problem of character training. Certainly there was a helpful change in the curriculum bias, but the same fiction remained that character developed automatically and concomitantly with mass learning, and that the presence of a noble-minded teacher would complete the process.

Our modern secondary schools, even in their success, are a national disappointment. For their present purpose they are probably as fine as any schools in the world, but they are chiefly factories for Examination results. Character training is accidental as in the elementary schools, for any conscious effort at character training in either group is usually made by useless precept. It is an undoubted tragedy that the chosen of the nation's youth in the Secondary Schools should lose the flush of enthusiasm for life through being compelled to accept passively carefully selected information for examination purposes.

The Secondary Schools are controlled and staffed by men and women of high academic calibre, who, with few exceptions, refuse to devise or incorporate any technique into the present learning process whereby real life value could be given to all the experience of the pupils in their schools. It is felt—and many teachers candidly confess—that these schools cannot be made really educative and cultural until there is assurance that a change of procedure will not handicap the school in the competitive scramble for examination results. Yet there are business men who refuse to employ the Secondary School applicant because they consider that disuse has somewhat atrophied certain of his character propensities, and that his so-called education has been destructive.

In the Elementary Schools the situation

relative to character training is just as depressing. Happily the children are released sooner than their secondary fellows from the educative process ; but sufficient damage has often been done to injure them for life. Reorganization, the Board of Education's latest panacea, but a source of future democratic discord, would separate tidily for peculiar reasons all the children in Elementary Schools into three age groups, Infants, Juniors and Seniors found unfit to pursue a higher academic course.

The Infant Schools show gleams of the happy spirit basic to all education. The Junior Schools, where a natural life is possible, are paralysed by the insane Scholarship 'ramp'. Most of the Senior Schools are spasmodically jerked into various practical activities, but lack the flow of the genial life current. There is no vital underlying 'motif' in their work.

The public conscience to-day is very sensitive towards children, and amongst their elders an intense faith has developed in the power of education. Elaborate changes have occurred in the externals of school life, and sacrifices are constantly made to meet the growing expenditure. There is a very uneasy feeling shared by many teachers, that in essentials the schools are not justifying either the faith or the expense. We seem to ignore the fact that a practical and more enlightened procedure is possible which will react even upon delinquent or potentially delinquent children, giving them power to resist the bias of their own natures and the pressure of the home environment.

The 'New Education' which makes the individual the unit and not the class, which recognizes the rights of the child, and endeavours to respect the laws of his nature, is flouted as the practice of cranks ; but we shall be compelled to follow its technique, for wisdom will be justified of her children.

In so far as school conditions will allow, the joy of living should be the touchstone of all work with the young. Resistance from the pupil is a measure of our failure, and continued resistance will mean the formation of habits of cunning and prevarication.

Life's stern reality is often made the excuse for severity of school régime. The pupil, it is

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on

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said, must be taught that he will receive scant consideration in the hard workaday world, and school experience must be a preparation. But, fortified by the serenity of a wise and happy school life, he will be better in every way, not only to meet the buffets of circumstance, but to ease situations where such arise.

How can the happy atmosphere be created—for it is vital? For moral, mental and physical health happiness must pervade all our being and doing. Happiness is not an external application. It is a spontaneous manifestation of joy from the harmony of activities of the individual and the power and needs of his human nature. Then, as teachers, the first consideration in all school work must be the happiness of the pupil. It is from this happiness that all true character training arises.

We are concerned with beginnings which behove sympathy and gentleness.

Those of us dealing with slum children know how anti-social are many of their homes, and how twisted their natures even when they first arrive at school. These are citizens of the future experiencing in school the first and perhaps the only opportunity of spiritual enlightenment for the responsibility of citizenship. Our methods must be such that their inner turmoil shall be smoothed to serenity, and every means given to exercise the social virtues.

This is no work for the bully, but only for the wide-minded teacher of fine purpose and integrity, humble in the task of brightening the spiritual image of God.

Punishment, corporal or otherwise, for character purposes is mostly wrong, but not wholly so. Where no fear arises punishment is just, natural and rare.

As the deepest joy comes from creation, the greater the possibility of creative activity the surer and the better will be the expression of all the positive features of character. Real happiness does not breed evil. Further, this spontaneity and urge to the fullest self-expression is dependent upon freedom, and there can be no spiritual productive freedom in the traditional Class System. Even in this democratic country freedom in schools is suspect among parents, a matter of grave concern to Education Committees, and to most teachers

an impracticable setting for profitable activity, breeding only chaos. Freedom implies choice and movement and speech, the action and reaction of our ordinary community life, and the school must be organized as a community. Even in the finest communal life there is surely no freedom without the limitation defined by responsibilities—to which children are wrongly supposed to be unequal.

It is interesting to note that in this country, the first and maybe the last outpost of individual liberty, most of our schools are conducted under as autocratic a rule as any of the totalitarian states, and yet later, as citizens, the children are expected to treasure their freedom and the responsibilities it entails. They would more keenly recognize the virtues of freedom and its duties if the schools gave them opportunity for apprenticeship.

Freedom is thus the first essential in education—the widest possible freedom commensurate with the spiritual and intellectual calibre of the staff, the varied opportunities and spatial qualities of the school.

Freedom compels individual work, and this means, at least, the partial wreck of the time table.

There is much misunderstanding concerning the term individual work. It does not seem to have been understood by the Consultative Committee in the 1926 Hadow Report on the adolescent. Either they did not know its significance, or they were contemptuous of its efficacy in the schools, judgment strangely contrary to the dicta of leading educationists. In the whole Report of over 300 pages there are but eight lines given to individual work, and that of a spurious kind taken within the framework of the class.

Individual work implies initiative, choice, movement and a definite programme of work for each pupil. It is not work done merely by the individual in a class at the instigation of a teacher, no matter how different his task may be from that of his neighbour.

But how is it possible in an Elementary school—for that is our main concern—to devise an organization to ensure an atmosphere of real happiness, wherein children shall be free to carry out their individual responsibilities in a natural community life? (Pope's facile

witticism that 'What is best administered is best' can justify any tyranny, and to suppose that with a good teacher any method is suitable is sheer delusion.)

Such an organization is possible in adaptations of the Dalton Plan. No elementary school with large numbers can hope to institute the plan in its entirety: such possibilities—if desirable—lie with Private schools, where expense offers no hindrance. Further, the Dalton Plan will be useless unless conducted in the spirit in which it was conceived; for without appropriate human agency the freedom it invites can become a greater tyranny than Class-System practice. One bully on the staff is a danger to the school, and those who practise the plan will understand the significance of this statement.

An adaptation of the plan has been in operation for eleven years in the writer's school, a boys' Senior School. As an account of its actual mechanics can be found in the January 1937 number of *The New Era*, only a brief reference to its major character features will be made here.

In choosing his subjects each day, a boy must exercise judgment and the cumulative effect of these daily judgments gives him the facility and invokes the power of judging. Furthermore, as he keeps a Record Card which must be presented to the Headmaster when a month's work in all subjects has been completed, he is continually weighing up means to an end.

In proceeding to his particular subject he exercises initiative denied him in the traditional class system. To accomplish his work this same initiative must be brought into play in overcoming his difficulties. He is encouraged to rely upon his own efforts, although he is not denied the means of help when his own power is not enough. Just as he can consult others, so he himself can be consulted, and this spirit of kindly co-operation develops the camaraderie essential to good social living. Allowed to move and speak at his own wish, he becomes an independent being, and shows it in his carriage and manner. He is not shy and tongue-tied, but asks and speaks frankly and easily when addressed. As furtiveness and suspicion are banished from the school atmos-

phere and confidence placed in his actions, he responds with a natural integrity which cleanses his nature of the need for subterfuge and prevarication. Allowed to proceed at his own speed and according to his ability, he develops remarkable habits of industry which surprise his employers when he leaves school. No longer frustrated and irritated by needless pedantic taboos, he becomes a natural being, and happiness seems to exude from him, reacting on his moral, spiritual, intellectual and physical health. Even the naughtiness of the delinquent becomes sublimated through interest and constant occupation. In addition to the duties of academic life, there are others to be carried out helpful to the supervision and working of the school. For this purpose between seventy and eighty boys have jobs demanding self-reliance and integrity in their fulfilment, all controlled by the School Captain under the discreet eyes of teachers and the Headmaster.

In most of our Public Schools character virtues are developed outside the classrooms in the responsibilities and activities traditional to Boarding School life. In the Elementary School out of school activities are necessarily limited; but a very successful House System functioning during and out of school hours provides both co-operative and competitive effort in draughts, chess, darts, concert, drama, fishing, cycling, cricket and football.

The distinctive *esprit de corps* that prevails has compelled the formation of an Old Boys' Association, remarkable for its vitality and the variety of its activities, both in and out of the school clubrooms, where boys of ages ranging from twenty-four to fourteen meet twice weekly for social and cultural purposes. Further, of more than fifteen hundred clubs fulfilling the conditions of membership of the National Association of Boys' Clubs, this is the only one directly recruited from a reorganized Senior Boys' school. But how much more could be done on these lines if schools were self contained — publicly controlled boarding schools—living as a community in the country, generously equipped in material and personnel.

The staff of the school was not specially selected, and in the light of our experience every school could adapt itself to the work,

granted the will to service in the interests of children.

Certainly correction of written exercises is constant and heavy, but its incidence is not felt in the serene atmosphere of a well-conducted study-room where work provides its own discipline. Oral expression of prepared work is given, an essential exercise in the education of boys and girls.

The teacher himself no longer assumes the authority of a dictator, but he is none the less powerful in his new rôle. Fear is displaced by sympathy, and even love, and a measure of the efficacy of the new relationship is seen when a boy goes to the teacher and engages him naturally and respectfully in conversation and discussion.

It may be noticed that no specific religious teaching has been invoked as an aid to character training. Religion gains little by not respecting the immaturity, the sanctity and the independence of the individual mind.

Pupils are affected by the mould of their environment, and the higher the ideal of active democratic living within the school, the more spirituality will be developed in the daily contacts, and the greater will be the reality infused into religious doctrine if later years should require its assimilation. The finer the teacher, the greater will be the influence he exerts, compelling integrity of thought, action and conduct.

The teacher can be dangerous ; but it is remarkable how much more effective the so-called 'weak' teacher is in a free atmosphere than in the class system. The teacher who does not recognize the rights of the pupil can be of little service in character training. The best teacher is contented—though not complacent in mind—from spiritual satisfaction, equable in temperament, competent academically and of wide experience, with an intense enthusiasm for social service, sympathetic, kindly and always willing to give, discreetly, help and guidance. Good health, dignity of carriage and decisive voice complete the paragon. Unfortunately there is no principle followed in the selection of teachers. Candidates enter because they usually cannot afford the fees of qualification in other professions, and Teaching becomes the last resort.

Drawn usually from a brave though uncultured stock, bent to a mean and sterile prostitution of learning in the Secondary School, further continued at the Training College, they betray no enthusiasm for the creative and adventurous work before them, seeking academic distinction mainly for financial reasons. The security guaranteed by their unions does not seem to have had an invigorating effect on either mind or practice. Rare it is in this age to find outstanding personalities in the teaching profession : yet were their education effective, leaders should automatically rise from their ranks and the schools would contain men and women who would be living examples of what the pupils could become.

It is time vision and generosity were introduced into the training of the teacher if the state is to benefit. There are Training College authorities who are still afraid that real men and women should issue from their portals.

Examination prowess should not be decisive as at present for entry into the Teaching profession. Knowledge garnered naturally and profitably, accompanied by some distinction comparable to the Moray badge of Gordons-toun, giving testimony to wide character achievement and physical accomplishment, should be essential. Teachers should know from their own experience how character is developed if they are to be useful to their pupils. Nor should the Training College be as at present, mainly an extension of the Secondary School ; but a vitalizing centre for social service, where men and women could educate themselves under wise guidance, with wide cultural facilities and means to satisfy any special bias. Opportunity should be frequent for enlightened pedagogical practice and for its extension to any special technique or school organization that will emphasize real character training and the natural assimilation of realistic knowledge. Every student should be allowed to live for periods in foreign countries associating not only with professional colleagues, but with ordinary citizens. Finally, time should be spent in manual labour under actual working conditions, an experience which would give sympathy with, knowledge of and admiration for the parents of the children in the schools, and a valuable appreciation of the

money value of labour : they would be fulfilling a necessary condition vital to all real education.

Of course, such a scheme would entail a considerable extension of the training period. But there is no justification for allowing callow and uncultured men and women, however academically qualified, to leave so-called training departments lacking the power, the specialized experience, and the desire to lead children to the new Jerusalem.

The theorist may treat with derision the

idea that a change in school practice can affect to any positive extent the basic features of character, and may think that whatever results may accrue can only be trivial. But, as Browning says, 'The little more and how much it is ; the little less and what worlds away.'

It is not too much to say that a radical change in the social product could be effected in one generation, in spite of the spiritually destructive effects of poverty and ignorance in the home.

L'École Unique

W. G. Bowman

L'*École Unique*, the conception of a democratic system of Education, closely linked together from the top to the bottom and offering equal opportunities to all children, irrespective of class or wealth, has been the subject of passionate debate in France ever since the end of the Great War, 1914-18. The extent of the reforms envisaged can only be compared with those started by the Fisher Report in England. The debates ranged, and still range, far beyond educational circles ; its provisions are a subject of concern for parents everywhere. The concensus of opinion is in favour of the new system. Opposition comes from the Catholic Church, which sees in the *École Unique* an attack on its own schools ; from certain sections of the *professeurs de lycée*, who fear attacks on their privileges, and, of course, from the political Right, voiced in its mouthpiece, *Le Temps*.

Compagnons de l'Université Nouvelle

It was during the chaos of 1917-18, in the trenches of the Western Front, that the idea of the *École Unique* was conceived. A group of officers imbued with high ideals for a new world, discussed the reform and the unification of French Education. In 1920 they published their ideas in two volumes on the New University. The term *université* as here used means the entire educational system.

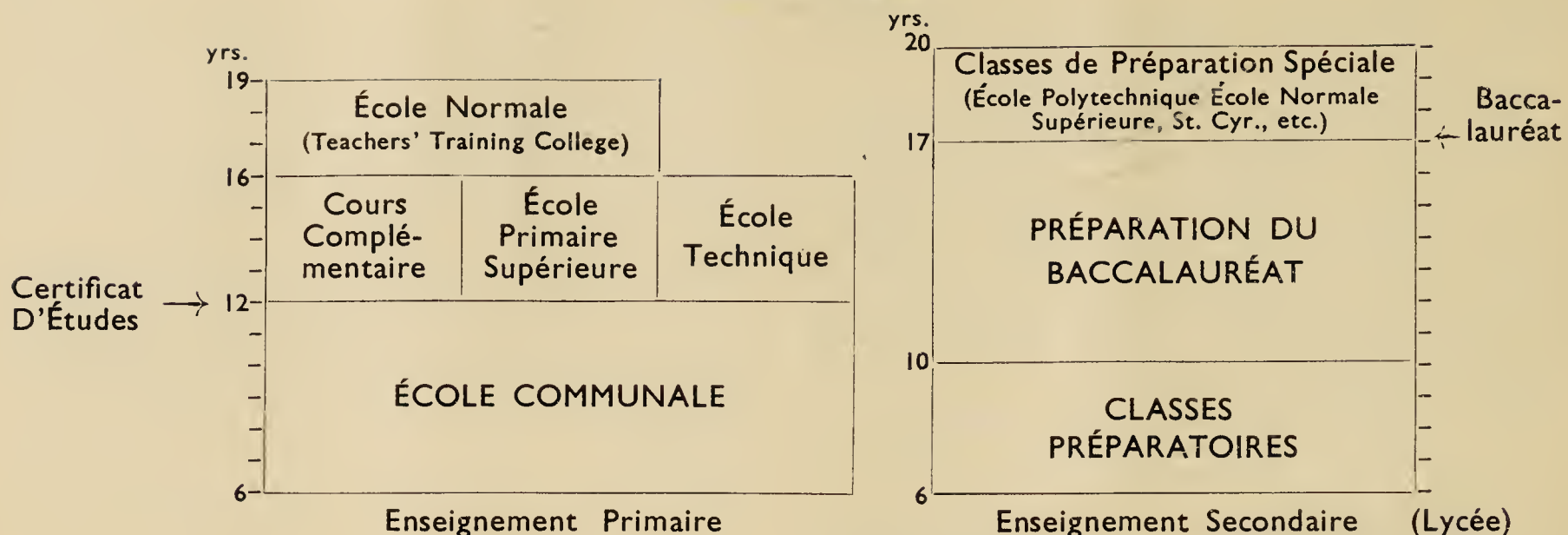
Support was not slow in coming, and many

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organizations, educational, philosophical, syndical, and political, set up committees of investigation. Later these efforts were co-ordinated in the 'Committee of Study and Action for the *École Unique*'. In 1927 a twelve-page brochure was published setting out the new system in the form of a Parliamentary Bill. Ten years later M. Jean Zay, Minister for Education in the Popular Front government, presented a Bill to the Chamber, conceived in substantially the same terms. This Bill is now law. Such, briefly, is the history of the *École Unique*.

The Old Structure

Briefly, what was the structure of Public Education in France at the end of the Great War? The Schools under the Ministry of Education were organized in two parallel water-tight sections, with a vertical division between them. The difference was complete, aggravated by considerations of class and wealth, and it was almost impossible to pass from one to the other. At the age of six, the compulsory school age, a child had the choice between two types of elementary school (*école primaire*). There was the local elementary school (*école communale*), and the preparatory department of the *lycée*. The time-tables by no means coincided, and, biggest difference of all, the *école communale* was free but the *lycée* was not. The preparatory classes of the



lycée alone led on to the *lycée* proper, *i.e.* secondary education. This in turn alone led on to the liberal professions, the Higher Civil Service. Thus at the early age of six, depending upon whether the parents could afford to pay or not, the child was granted or refused the benefits of a secondary education. Wealth, not ability, was the criterion.

At the *École Communale* the child stayed till the age of twelve, when he passed the *certificat d'études*. He could then choose between a short advanced course (*cours complémentaire*), the Higher Elementary School (*École Primaire Supérieure*), or the Technical School. In any case education was compulsory till the age of thirteen. Cultural education with a vocational bias was given in these advanced courses. Future clerks, skilled tradesmen, shopkeepers passed out of the schools. Whether the child stayed on at school after the age of thirteen was frequently decided by the ability or lack of ability on the part of the family to do without the child's earning power.

Nine-tenths of the children of France passed through this system; a small proportion continued on in the advanced courses until the age of sixteen. A few managed to win scholarships to the *lycée* at the age of twelve. But these scholarships were small in number, and in any case the child started two years late at the *lycée*—ten years being the normal age of entry.

If the child belonged to the chosen tenth, he passed at the age of ten or eleven into the *lycée* proper. At the age of about seventeen he passed the *baccalauréat*, or matriculation.

Classics, Modern studies, and pure Science were the three sides of the school. In other words Technical Education did not come into the scope of the *baccalauréat*. The *baccalauréat* gave access to the universities and to the *Grandes Écoles de France*.

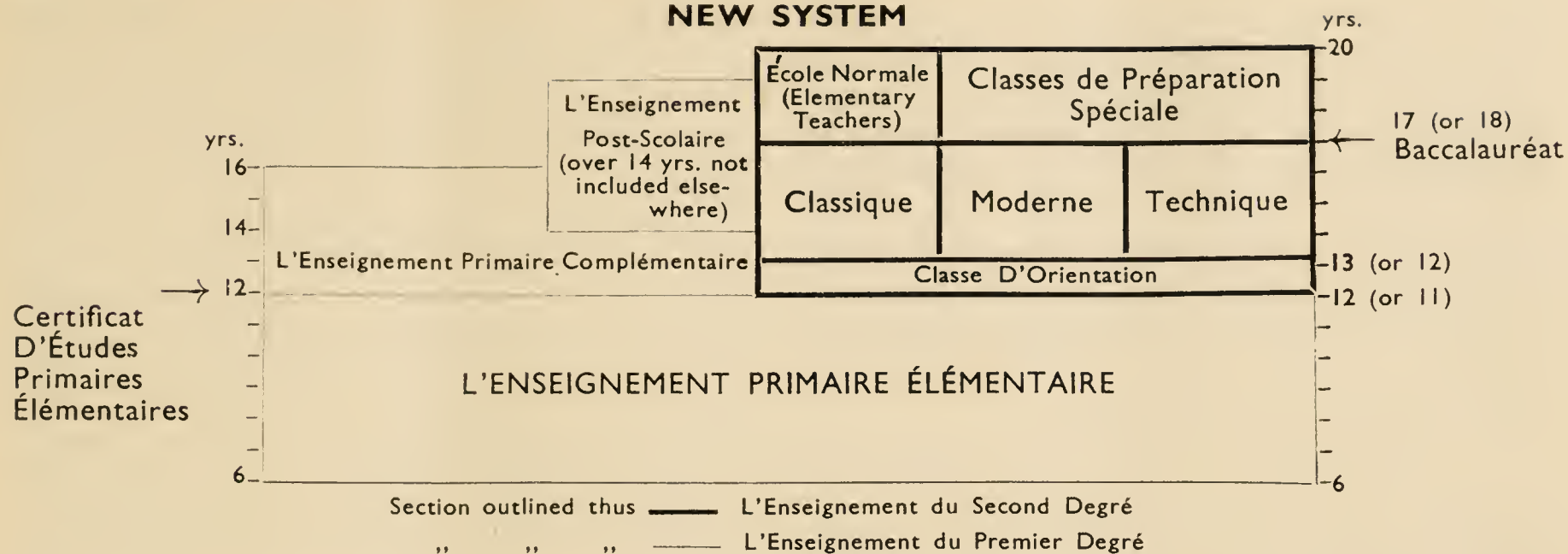
It is to be noted that each section recruited its teachers from its own pupils. Elementary teachers were recruited from the *enseignement primaire*, and did not have a secondary school education. Secondary school teachers, the *professeurs de lycée*, had to pass the *agrégation* examination, which for many reasons was inaccessible except to secondary school boys; hence a great gulf separating elementary school and secondary teachers. They lived side by side, complete strangers in different worlds.

The Reforms inspired by the École Unique

A fundamental step was taken in 1929, when secondary school education was made free, except for the post-*baccalauréat* courses (*Classes de Préparation Spéciale*), preparing for the *Grandes Écoles de France*. From then onward an increasing stream of children from the lower income groups began passing through the *lycées*. This was an essential provision in true democratic tradition, the necessary forerunner of later reforms.

Several other steps were possible, without incurring new legislation. Thus in 1936 the school-leaving age in the *enseignement primaire* (later called *l'enseignement du premier degré*) was raised to 14 years.

A year later physical education was made



compulsory in all schools. This meant physical training in the open air, either for an hour a day or for one afternoon a week. At the same time the time-tables were lightened, to provide room for organized recreation. Translated into practice this has meant organized school visits on Saturday afternoons, to museums, factories, theatres, and places of historical, artistic or other educational interest. These measures were designed to reduce the strain and over-work which used to be one of the worst features of French education.

This brings us to Jean Zay's Bill, presented to the Chamber in 1937. Two main ideas dominate. The first is unification and democratization. Every child must have an equal chance at the outset of life. Therefore the new law abolishes the division between the two sections of primary education. Financial equality there was already, so now one syllabus was established for all schools giving primary instruction, *i.e.* from 6 to 12 years. This uniformity does not, of course, exclude initiative on the part of teachers and head teachers.

At the age of twelve the child sits for the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires*. This examination may be compared to the entrance examination in England to the various +11 schools. As in England the future course taken by the child depends on the result of this examination, which is more than a simple series of examination papers. If the child succeeds in this examination, he passes into *l'enseignement du second degré* (secondary education). If he fails, or if for any reason it is decided that he shall

not enter on a secondary education, he enters the advanced courses of the primary education. These courses remain very little changed by the reform. In the terms of the Act, 'the instruction given comprises a general education together with vocational training adapted to the prevailing local conditions'. Further organizational details are shown in Figure 2.

The Act does not radically change the structure of the *enseignement du premier degré*. It has a far greater effect on the *enseignement du second degré*. In fact it is primarily concerned with this division. After passing successfully his *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires*, the child at the age of 12+ (or 11+ in certain cases), enters '*la classe d'orientation*', where he stays for one year. Here we have the second main idea of the *École Unique*—the guiding of the child in his choice of studies, and therefore to some extent in his choice of career. In the words of M. Jean Zay, 'to strive for a better organization of secondary education, to advise parents so that they may in complete freedom of choice guide their children wisely in this direction or that; in short to ensure that every child entrusted to our care may fulfil his natural destiny, is not only the fulfilment of the ideals I have just expounded, but also guards against a grave danger which might seriously imperil our educational structure.'

The class is organized as follows. The number of children in each class must not be more than twenty-five, and each class must not have more than five or six teachers. The collaboration between the teachers of this

class must be as close as possible. They are drawn, not only from the *lycées*, but from all sections of the educational system, from elementary schools, senior schools, and technical schools. This in itself is a valuable innovation, breaking down as it does parochialism among the various grades of teachers, and permitting a valuable exchange of ideas and experience. Needless to say, some secondary teachers, worried about their privileges, strongly oppose this innovation.

The special duties of the teachers in this year of orientation are to estimate the temperament and abilities of each child, using class results, personal observation of the child at work and play, consultations with the parents. Each child has a card on which this data is entered, together with a medical report, and a history of the background and development of the child.

At the end of the year the teacher, thanks to the careful compilation of the case history of each child, will be able to advise parents as to the best course of study, and also as to the professions which offer the best opportunities. It is then for the parents to decide for themselves whether they will follow the advice or not.

The *classe d'orientation* has aroused more polemics than any other of the provisions of the Act. Its champions have had to defend it against the accusation that it is an attempt on the part of the state to take away the liberty of the parent in regard to the child. But the teachers can only advise, and the parent is completely free to reject or accept the counsel given.

Another criticism, perhaps more serious, is that twelve is too young an age to attempt any sort of guidance. Guidance should follow, not precede, puberty. The reply given is that educational guidance is alone envisaged. There is no attempt to assign there and then a particular career, law, teaching, medicine, or whatever it may be, to a particular child. The only purpose is to assist the child to make the best choice between three courses of study. The three streams are: classical humanities (ancient languages, philosophy), modern humanities (modern languages), and technical humanities (sciences). The differentiation in the three streams is gradual, and marked not so much by the presence or absence of this or

that subject, but by the degree of attention given to the different subjects in each course. Thus general culture, always a subject of preoccupation in France, is fostered rather than destroyed.

Each stream comprises six years of study after the *classe d'orientation*, ending in the *baccalauréat* at the age of 17-18, as before. Furthermore, a certain parallelism of the time-tables is maintained, so that students may change from one stream to another, in the event of wrong guidance, with the minimum of difficulty. Special temporary courses are envisaged further to facilitate such changes. In any case, as M. Jean Zay and his supporters point out, the criticism is a little strange, because under the old system a choice was made at the age of six, which more or less determined the career of the future citizen.

The *classe d'orientation* is a radical application of the practice grown up in English education. In English schools there is usually a differentiation into three streams. This differentiation, at first an arbitrary division into good, mediocre and poor groups, is gradually changing into a sounder differentiation according to character and ability. The *École Unique*, by placing a special orientation class, with specially trained teachers, at the source of the three streams, has started an experiment of the highest interest, and which is likely to provide valuable lessons for teachers in England.

Furthermore, secondary education will not be confined to the *lycées*. The Technical Schools of different sorts, and other schools administered in the *second degré*, also prepare their pupils for the *baccalauréat*. This again is an innovation. The *lycée* will, as before, specialize in the arts and pure science.

The training for secondary teachers remains unchanged, except that they have to do two years' professional training after their academic training. Elementary teachers have to pass through the secondary system, obtain the *baccalauréat*, and then do professional training at the *École Normale*, or Training College, as in England. The gulf between elementary and secondary teachers is thus bridged to a great extent. Till the age of eighteen they have a similar education, a similar culture.

The Act was to be applied fully by 1944.

But the war will doubtless postpone the full application, both for financial reasons, and because of the severe inroads made on the teaching personnel by mobilization. The year 1937-38 saw experiments in the *classe d'orientation* started in fifty centres—about two hundred classes. Some interesting results have already been obtained, but an analysis of them is not possible within the limits of this article. Such in brief outline are the reforms, understood by

the term *École Unique*. They concern primary and secondary education. University and Higher Education have not been altered.

Unification and guidance are the two ideals which inspire the *École Unique*. It is a sincere democratic effort to ensure to every child, boy and girl, an equal chance at the outset of life, and to guide the child in the development, and the best use of the equipment given him by nature.

Music as Education

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IN writing this article for *The New Era* I have in mind the fact that the majority of my readers are likely to be persons interested in education as a whole, and not specialist music teachers. It is my intention, therefore, to attempt to discuss the part that music has to play in a democratic education, in the hope that interest and perhaps dissent will be aroused which will produce constructive thinking. For if music as a cultural subject is to survive educational conditions created by this war, and is to get a 'square deal' in any long-range planning for post-war education, we must consider it now with the same clarity of vision that we are urged to devote to our peace aims.

In an article entitled 'The Crisis in Education' in *The Spectator* of 9th February, 1940, Sir Cyril Norwood writes: 'The old education will not do; it must be lengthened, widened and deepened.' This seems to me to be particularly applicable to musical education as it was prior to the outbreak of war, and already the position has been made worse by problems of evacuation and economic difficulties. Music has for long been termed 'the Cinderella of the Arts', and in spite of the enormous advances made in the teaching of music and the position assigned to it in the school curriculum, I think it might still be termed 'the Cinderella of the Curriculum'. Why is this? I would instance the following as some of the reasons contributing to this unsatisfactory state of affairs.

1. Confusion as to the real aim of musical education.

2. Lack of sufficient adequately-trained and equipped teachers.
3. Exploitation of music for show purposes.
4. Economic difficulties.

Let us examine these reasons in some detail.

What is the real aim of musical education?

Musical education in school is not primarily designed for the training of those with special aptitude, but is rather intended to serve as one very important medium for 'the education of the Whole Man', to borrow L. P. Jacks' excellent phrase. The nature of the subject makes it singularly appropriate for that synthesis of Physical-Emotional-Intellectual-Spiritual education which every citizen of a democracy has a right to expect. Provision for this education should therefore be made at every stage of education from Nursery School through Infant, Primary and Secondary stages, and should be included in any scheme of social-welfare work for those who have left school. The reader may say 'But surely this argument is already widely recognised and applied.' That is true, and no disparagement of the excellent work already achieved is intended, but there remains much room for improvement. Music has by no means yet come into its own where Boys' Schools are concerned. Even in those Girls' Schools where reasonable time is given to music, there is still a tendency to regard it as a waste of time for children who display no special

aptitude, and there may be a tendency to cut down the time allotted to the teaching of music as the claims of external examinations make themselves felt. The increasing tendency to offer Music as a subject in the School Certificate Examination, coupled with the exacting nature of the syllabus, may prove a danger in this respect, and unless the teacher is very alive to his responsibilities, the teaching may easily degenerate into mere 'cramming'. My own work with older students has shown how often this is the case. 'Oh! yes, I did it for School Certificate, but I never understood it' is a remark I have heard on many occasions. These considerations bring me to the second point above, namely:

The Music Teacher

Music teaching in school falls into two main categories. These are (a) class-teaching of Singing, Aural Training and Musical Appreciation and (b) (more particularly in Public, Private and Secondary Schools) individual instrumental lessons. This produces the following situation. Specialist music teachers are too frequently those trained to teach one particular instrument, and through lack of training in class-teaching, coupled with a too-limited conception of the real aim of musical education, they prove inadequate to arouse the enthusiasm of the children as a whole for musical class-work. The Joint Graduate Course of the Royal Academy of Music and the Royal College of Music for the training of teachers in music is doing much to remedy this state of affairs, but it cannot solve the problem of the large number of those already teaching who have not had the benefit of this training. On the other hand, much of the class-teaching of music in the Primary State Schools, and to some extent also in Private Schools, is undertaken by non-specialist teachers who, while possessing great skill in teaching, may lack real enthusiasm for music as a subject. This is disastrous, and the results are pathetic, as I have found from personal experience in teaching vocal music in L.C.C. Evening Institutes. No spark of enthusiasm has been ignited and one feels what grand opportunities have been lost. Again, music is frequently taught by teachers who have a very

real enthusiasm for the subject, but insufficient knowledge of it, and in teaching some of the latter I have been appalled at the extent to which it was a case of 'the blind leading the blind'. A most pressing aim then, would seem to be the training of specialist music teachers with a real sense of vocation and the ability to present their subject in a wide, cultural sense, but here war-time economic problems are already interfering with this vital work. A number of music students are unable for financial reasons to complete an expensive training already begun, and many music teachers who have lost most of their work as a result of evacuation or of parents and schools being forced to economize, have already turned to work in other fields. In some cases students in Training Colleges, who would normally have devoted a Third Year to an advanced music course, are also unable to do so for economic reasons. It is an unfortunate paradox of this war which we are supposedly fighting for the right of all to lead full free lives in a peaceful atmosphere, that it may entail the sacrifice of many of those very privileges for which we are fighting. There is an urgent need for educators to plan for a long-term policy, even while coping with immediate problems. Music can and should provide a legitimate means of escape for a population depressed and exhausted by a war of attrition, but unless we take the right steps now to educate the rising generation to a discriminating taste in music, it will be easy for the more debased forms of the art to gain ground as they did in the recent post-war years. Knowing how children are capable of being thrilled by really great music, one is loath to think of them prostituting this talent for appreciation of the sublime creations of musical genius, such as the Bach 'St. Matthew Passion', to the musical inanities of a Deanna Durbin film, or to the 'crooning' of rubbishy words and the type of music so aptly called 'Blues' with its sickening, defeatist wailing.

Exploitation of Music for show purposes

The nature of music as a form of entertainment and the possibility of obtaining showy results for production at School Concerts, Speech Days and the like, not infrequently

deflect the music teacher from the pursuit of his real aims. Already limited time is often wasted in working items up to concert pitch (with resulting boredom on the part of the class), and the musical items themselves may be chosen rather with an eye to the requirements of an adult audience than to their suitability in a well-planned scheme of musical education. Illuminating remarks sometimes come from the children themselves, showing that they have been given a sense of inferiority with regard to their musical ability. 'I was turned out of the class because I couldn't keep in tune, and they were working for a Carol Concert. I'm no good at music', was said to me recently. The child in question had a real love of music, but had been made to feel that it was useless for her to attempt to do anything about it. It is surely a mistake to discourage our pupils in this way. The situation could, of course, easily have been averted by the exercise of a little tact on the part of the teacher, but 'results' had been put before education. It is possible to combine the two, but it calls for frequent mental stock-taking on the part of the teacher.

Economic difficulties

As long as instrumental tuition remains an 'extra', musical education will be hampered by economic difficulties, and also by 'class distinction' with a consequent loss to the musical life of the nation as a whole. When a child is weak in some subject such as arithmetic or English, we tend to give him extra coaching, rather than allowing him to drop the subject, but when a child fails to make obvious progress in instrumental music, it is quite customary for the parent to insist that the lessons are a waste of money and must therefore be dropped, even though the child may desire to continue them. In some cases it is difficult for the teacher to urge their continuance, as his own financial interest is involved, and his reasons may appear to be selfish rather than true educational ones. Yet it is often the child lacking in muscular co-ordination who would derive great benefit from instrumental training, and the inability to perform does not necessarily imply lack of musical understanding and appreciation. There are many psycho-

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logical reasons in favour of individual instrumental lessons, too, which are often overlooked, and into which I have not time to enter fully here, but many music teachers know what help they are frequently able to give to 'difficult' children. Therefore I should like to see every school employ a full-time instrumental teacher, who combined efficient musicianship with a sympathetic intuition about children's difficulties. Many of these difficulties are revealed in the music lesson, and a sympathetic teacher may gain the child's confidence in a way which would be impossible in class. A proper recognition of the value of music teaching should ensure that instrumental tuition is a normal part of the curriculum and not an 'extra'. That is a long overdue reform, and although the economic difficulties are great they are not insuperable. The creation of permanent posts carrying assured and adequate remuneration would also doubtless encourage more of the right kind of people to take up music teaching, especially men, and this would have its effect on the teaching in boys' schools.

So far my article has been mainly critical, some readers may think unduly so. May I therefore conclude with what I hope are a few constructive suggestions?

The Singing Class

All schools should have at least one weekly singing class and as much singing at other times as may conveniently be included, *e.g.* at morning assembly (where it need not necessarily be a hymn, but IF a hymn, make sure that it is a good one!) and at Sunday services in Boarding Schools (and this term may soon include Evacuee Camp Schools, and after the war, we hope, Holiday Camps for school children). The English musical genius has long expressed itself in choral singing, and the great Musical Festivals, such as the Three Choirs, the Leeds Festival, the Welsh Eisteddfods and so on, testify to the continuance of this tradition. These are a part of our national heritage which should be jealously guarded. The Singing Class offers a most valuable opportunity for physical training, attention to breathing and good habits of articulation; for emotional training through the infinite variety of mood and experience found in song-literature; for training in 'team spirit' through a communal, social activity; and if this is the only time that can be spared from a crowded time-table for music study, the general aim should be to teach musical appreciation through song and not to spend too much time fussing over details of voice production or working on over-ambitious programmes for Speech Day celebrations. A small choir of specially gifted and musically-inclined children should be allowed extra time for working at music for display purposes, even as all children play games, but a few selected ones constitute the school's First Eleven and represent it publicly.

I think I cannot better conclude my plea for the retention of the Singing Class at all costs than by referring readers to those excellent 'Eight Reasons briefly set down by the Author to persuade every one to learn to sing' of the Elizabethan composer, William Byrd, which he concluded with the couplet 'Since Singing is so good a thing, I wish all men would learne to sing.'

Class work in music other than singing

This may take various forms, all of them excellent if taught by the right person who combines enthusiasm with a wide musicianship. In schools where a number of children cannot afford instrumental lessons most valuable work may be achieved in the piano class and the violin class, the latter providing a basis for that most desirable activity, the School Orchestra. This latter can be enormously helped by the co-operation of other members of the Staff, and if they are very amateurish so much the better since it serves to emphasise their common humanity with the pupils. In Junior Schools the Percussion Band may also lay a foundation for orchestral playing.

Other schools may attain their objective through the institution of Pipe and Recorder classes. The correlation of music and craft work makes for a widening of interest. It is also a most useful alternative in schools where economic difficulties prevent the acquisition of more expensive instruments, and it is an invaluable means of ear-training, since the child must learn to tune his own instrument. The resulting part-playing of the families of treble and alto pipes, etc., directs musical appreciation to the wealth of contrapuntal music of the great Elizabethan period and can thus form an excellent point of departure for the more formal music study in history of music and harmony demanded by the School Certificate syllabus. Creative melody making is also directly encouraged, and in the fullest sense we get 'learning by doing'. Where pipe classes cannot be part of the normal curriculum, they may well be encouraged as 'out of school' activities and hobbies.

The class which is variously called aural training, musical appreciation or history of music, is perhaps one of the greatest danger spots for the music teacher. If too much insistence is laid on the acquisition of 'the technique of listening', through sight singing of dreary melodies (they needn't be dreary, but so often are!); through written dictation of musical phrases and rhythms, which seems to arouse a terrific fear complex in many children, to whom the intricacies of musical notation seem very formidable, both teacher and pupils may easily lose sight of the end

while struggling with the means. Again, one may be too complacent about the value of listening to gramophone records of good music. Children are often enthusiastic about listening to records, simply because it offers a blissful opportunity to indulge in a quiet time and think about something else! I do not blame them for this, and it may fulfill a useful function in providing a recuperative period from the strain of being taught, but it is not musical education. History of Music may be thoroughly dull, and while possibly forming a useful intellectual exercise and supplying the child with information easily obtainable from a book, if he desired it, it may have no relation to an understanding and appreciation of music as an Art. If correlated to other subjects such as history, geography and literature, it may become a fascinating aspect of the story of man's development through the ages and may serve to encourage a most stimulating form of free discussion between teacher and pupils. I am at present experimenting with such an approach with a class of children aged twelve to fourteen years, and though I am not at all

sure that it is not becoming rather a general knowledge debating society than a history of music course, I do feel sure that it is a very enjoyable and alive piece of education in clear thinking, for me as much as for the pupils. Music is an enormous subject, and we shall never have time in school to do more than touch a fraction of it, so do not let us quibble too much about the respective merits or demerits of this or that method, but whichever line we do take, let us be sure that we keep our real aim in mind, and make the teaching really alive and enjoyable.

We are told that after the war our standard of living may be lowered and we shall have less money to spend on pleasure. Perhaps that will be very good for our culture if it throws us back on the need to create our own amusements and leisure occupations. Musical activities offer us a rich field in this connection, and just as it is far better to play football than to watch professional matches, so it is better to 'make music' either alone or in communal ways, than it is to rely on mechanically-reproduced music.

The Teaching of the Recorder

Edgar H. Hunt

**Professor of the Recorder,
Trinity College of Music**

IN an article in the February issue of *The New Era* Mr. Fowler showed how recorder playing was introduced into his school at Silsden and how it has since been developed there under his able guidance. So considerable is becoming the revival of interest in this old English flute that hardly a day passes without a new recorder class being formed in some school, and the suddenness of this growth will create new problems for educational authorities.

In many instances the demand for the formation of a recorder class within the school curriculum, or a recorder club meeting out of school hours, has come from the children themselves, and the music teacher is faced with the problem of teaching an unfamiliar instrument at very short notice. The teacher can do much by self-instruction provided he has a little understanding of the theory of musical wind instruments and the ability to

apply such knowledge to the recorder; and the writer's little 'Method for Group Instruction' was primarily designed to help such teachers to present the main principles of recorder technique to their classes in a logical and progressive order, and so guide them past some of the difficulties which might otherwise be encountered in the first few lessons.

There is, however, at the moment a real need for teachers with some definite training and qualification for teaching the recorder. Is anything being done to supply it?

Nearly three years ago Bradford Education Committee was anxious to introduce recorder playing into the schools under its authority; so, to make this possible, I was invited to conduct a week's intensive course for recorder teachers, and one day in July 1938 I found myself facing a class of two dozen teachers from schools in Bradford who were willing to co-operate in this scheme. Only two or three

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had seen or heard a recorder before, so my first duty was to tell them something about its history and traditions, and to point out that it was not just a novelty instrument or an educational stunt, and, above all, let them hear what the instrument sounded like and what it could play. Next I divided the assembled teachers into two (more manageable) groups with whom I worked in alternate sessions for the rest of the course. Each teacher was armed with a descant recorder, a tutor and a few simple music books, and learnt from the very beginning the things he would be expected to teach his children if he started a class the following term. A feature of each session, which lasted for an hour and a half, was a period of half an hour devoted to practice and individual instruction, which made it possible to deal with any special problems. At the end of the course the two classes played to each other and joined together in the music studied.

In the following May I had an opportunity for judging some of the results of this course at the Bradford School Music Festival. While most of the schools presented picked groups of players, one (Usher Street School) entered a complete form. Nobody was left out because he was 'unmusical' or might spoil the playing of the group. Not only was this experiment justified in the performance, but the whole Festival showed that recorder playing had made a good beginning in Bradford. Last summer the course was repeated with a dozen

new teachers, while those who had attended the first course spent the week studying the treble recorder in readiness for further developments.

So much for Bradford. What else is being done to help teachers with the study of the recorder? For a number of years now a lecture demonstration on the recorder has been included in the Board of Education's Vacation Course for Music Teachers in Elementary Schools at the Royal Academy of Music, and last year the subject was introduced at the Board's Summer School for Secondary School Teachers at Oxford. For nearly five years there have been classes for recorder players at Trinity College of Music, London, and the College offers a comprehensive syllabus of examinations in recorder playing from the junior grade to the teachers' Associateship diploma (A.T.C.L.). Training colleges are also showing an interest in the recorder.

The Society of Recorder Players from time to time holds a test for its members, and successful candidates are given a certificate, stating that they are accredited teachers within the Society. The aim of this test is to form a panel of teachers whose names can be recommended by the secretary. Although this test and its certificate are designed solely for the needs of the Society and its members—it does not pretend to be a professional diploma—it might serve as a useful model should an examination for recorder teachers be added to any training scheme, as the emphasis is laid on musicianship, a sound knowledge of the instrument, and the ability to teach it, rather than any mere virtuosity as a performer.

At one time the recorder movement was in

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danger of being fossilized as a dilettante and purely antiquarian interest; now it must be on its guard against three far greater dangers:

- (1) of becoming an educational stunt;
- (2) of inferior instruments—inexpensive desecrated recorders can be very good or very bad, and teachers should learn to recognize the difference.
- (3) of the opportunist teacher who starts recorder classes because his pre-war connection has decreased and he thinks it will be an easy way of making money.

The best way to meet such dangers is for teachers to use to the full such facilities for training as already exist and to demand more.

What special knowledge and training is required for teaching the recorder? First of all, a general musical training and some knowledge of other instruments in order that the recorder specialist may not become one-sided and lacking in understanding of other forms of music. Secondly, a knowledge of the history and traditions of recorder playing. The pioneers of the present recorder revival made most of their early studies in the reading room of the British Museum, with little seventeenth century books of 'Lessons for the Recorder', the 'Principes' of Hotteterre, and the 'Modern Music Master' (1731) for instructors, and a repertory selected from the vast array of early eighteenth century sonatas and

duets. There is not now the same need for individual research, but a sound historical background is the best answer to any who may think the recorder is a novelty instrument and just a glorified tin whistle. Armed with a knowledge of the recorder's history the teacher is better equipped to explore the repertory of chamber music with recorders, music including strings and the voice, by such acknowledged masters as Bach, Handel and Telemann. And this presupposes a third requirement—the ability to play the recorder artistically.

In order to understand the working of the instrument a knowledge of acoustics in relation to wind instruments is an advantage, and if this is combined with the ability to do small adjustments and repairs the advantage will be even greater.

All this knowledge, training and experience will be of no avail if the object for which it is acquired is overlooked. The aim of recorder teachers at the present time is to encourage their pupils—in fact, all with whom they come in contact—to make music for their enjoyment, in however simple a capacity. For a generation we have been taught to listen to music—to put on a record or turn a knob and 'appreciate' the sounds we hear. Now we are rightly told to be up and doing: recorder playing is just one way of 'doing', and a way that many can understand and enjoy.

Advertising History

D. D. Crowley

ALL who have taught history know the dangers of too much talk. It is a subject in which 'lecturing' often seems inevitable. I have heard a young student faced with the problem of teaching history without mere expositions ask, 'But how can you draw facts out of a class until you have put them in? You can't do conjuring tricks.' The difficulties are undoubtedly great, so great that to some people they have seemed insuperable. All too often the teacher of history, against his better judgment, has become a 'spouter'.

But history is a subject for which enthusiasm can be caught like the plague. The love of history can be communicated in subtle ways

**Assistant Master,
Harrow County School**

from an enthusiast to a class. Then the work must be done largely by the pupil with the master to help him over stiles. Research, even of the humblest kind, is a pleasant pastime, once a young history novice can be induced to undertake it. And a little genuine 'browsing' does more good than a long listen in the majority of cases.

How can young people be made to like browsing? There are several ways.

Nearly all of us in our youth, and a majority, I believe, in later life have visual memories. We can remember a striking page clearly in the mind's eye after looking thoughtfully at it a number of times. But what if we not merely

looked at it but designed and executed its striking features? Note-making in history, *i.e.* co-ordinating the results of browsing, benefits from a study of arrangement, variation and presentation of subjects, both with regard to spacing and colours.

Few boys are not interested in advertising. The majority like to do good lettering and use their hands. The following line of reasoning therefore appeals to them:

When a poster artist is called upon to familiarize an article he has first to consider the essentials of his subject. What are the few vital points which he must illustrate? What will be the best way of presenting these salient features? All are familiar with brilliant successes either on tube stations or in the newspaper. The interest of the class is aroused.

Suppose, however, the same artist had been called upon to advertise the career of Oliver Cromwell or the downfall of James II? What would he do? Clearly, he would cut out all non-essentials; he would edit and re-edit his material and then ponder over it in search of inspiration. Ideas would crowd upon him, but many would be rejected in the all-important interests of simplicity.

Members of a class in a Senior Elementary School or in a Secondary School will produce surprising results when asked to try and put themselves in the position of such a poster artist, to read up for themselves a given subject and then to present its essential features in advertisement form. Some initial failures will not matter, for several successful examples from the more ingenious members of the group will, when understood, spur the remainder to fresh efforts with some ideas to work on. Some may only adapt the ideas of others or frankly copy, but they need only tactful handling and encouragement.

The fact emerging from all this is that, without being aware of it, boys and girls are really 'browsing' about in their books, thoughtfully finding out facts to incorporate in a scheme of note-making which is their own.

In time remarkable note-books, developed on personal lines, will come into being. Those with drawing ability will revel in this work; those with less skill can adapt or develop such as they have.

Here are a few of the more striking ideas:

One small girl showed the career of Cromwell as a series of steps to dictatorship with giant legs in the costume of the period, striding over the farmer on the bottom step, and the army leader on the second to the dictator on the top, with incidentals incorporated into the main scheme of the page.

A boy of 12 made this enigmatic career a journey up a hill with pitfalls and steep ascents; the whole being designed in colour to stand up when the book was opened.

Another boy's horror of Cromwell's restrictions made him design a series of overlapping panels like playing-cards, modernizing the restrictions pictorially. A closed cinema, a long sermon, house-to-house inspections were among the subjects shown. A note on the opposite page explained that the period was, of course, wrong, but that he was considering our modern reactions to similar acts.

On another occasion the same boy, developing the theme, showed the Dutch coming up the Thames in modern warships. The same reservations were made, and to obviate misunderstandings a very skilful sectional drawing of a period warship was shown.

A book on the Great War, with sketches, cuttings and a collection of relevant stamps, was produced in a few weeks during a fit of enthusiasm. That it was a successful effort at self-expression was shown by a certain youthful facetiousness which was by no means overdone.

For those taking examinations the value of planning a page to assist the visual memory is most marked. A page becomes more familiar with regular revisions till, instead of requiring a close inspection, it may be dismissed at a glance as known. At the examination desk such familiarity proves a blessing.

It is impossible here to enumerate the many intriguing ideas that have emerged during experiments on this scheme, but consideration of it is recommended. Perseverance and some hard work will, however, be required, as the idea can only slowly be developed in a school. It is, of course, necessary to mix it with many other treatments of the subject. Lectures by pupils, date sheets leading to 'history bees' and time-charts all play their part, together with good oral lessons and some sound text-books, in providing variety of treatment. In oral lessons discussions are most useful when based on a comparison of such simple pieces of research as have been described above: in the use of text-books it is a great advantage to have five or six sets on which to ring changes.

Book Reviews

Dangerous Thoughts. By Lancelot Hogben. (George Allen & Unwin, 8/6.)

Hogben is one of the most vigorous and original thinkers of the day. Everything—or nearly everything—he writes is both readable and worth reading. In this book he has collected fifteen very lively and very witty essays, composed during the last four years. They deal with topics which intelligent and well-informed people have been discussing, or should have been discussing. The range covered is very wide, but the treatment is remarkably well unified, and each discussion serves to illuminate a particular aspect of the main position which Hogben holds and defends.

‘The civilized world of to-day vacillates between deep disillusionments and great expectations of imminent possibilities. Mass unemployment has destroyed confidence in progress and prosperity through private enterprise, while abundant intimations of available plenty dazzle us with new potentials of social achievement made possible by advancing scientific knowledge.’

The immediate task is to bring about the age of plenty which is within our grasp. Since ‘no intelligent individual under forty-five years of age imagines that capitalism can survive’ there is wide agreement that the first step will have to be the setting up of some form of collectivist economy.

But at this point disagreement begins. The Marxists, for instance, ask us to believe in a theology of violence. Hogben rejects this alternative for many reasons : partly because he distrusts violence ; partly because he does not consider that metaphysical religions (like Marxism) can be reliable guides to social action ; partly because dialectical materialism is just nonsense ; partly because all closed systems must be anti-scientific.

Nor has Hogben much more sympathy with what might be called the ‘Labour Party Path’. For he wishes to bring about reforms much more radical than those desired by most Socialists. His own political faith draws inspiration from Robert Owen, Edward Carpenter and William Morris. He does not merely criticize the way in which capitalism distributes its goods, nor is he primarily concerned with removing inequalities in spending power. He wants science to provide plenty for all, but in addition he wants science to be used to make Britain a more beautiful and pleasant place to live in. He wishes factories to produce for everyone, but only things that it will be good for people to have.

So to Hogben, as distinct from most Socialists and from all present-day Marxists, collectivism is a necessary rather than a sufficient condition for further social progress. In addition, to him, the way in which the change-over to collectivism is made matters immensely. For it is this which will determine how far democratic rights and liberties can be preserved.

Though it is urgently necessary to mobilize constructive social effort, it is difficult to do so. For most people have not been trained to think or to react in a way appropriate to a scientific and technical age. The schools and the Universities go on paying homage to ancient superstitions and continue to give to many of their pupils a training which has lost all social relevance.

Hogben’s solution of the political problem is thus, first, to reduce it to an educational problem ; and then to show what sort of educational reforms are necessary in the light of his general ideas. This explains why no fewer than five of the essays in the present volume deal directly with education, while all the others refer to it. He has interesting and important things to say about adult education, about university education, about the teaching of science and about the teaching of mathematics. Incidentally, though he passionately desires rather revolutionary reforms, he has little sympathy with ‘the ultra-individualistic reaction which is called *experimental education*. This generally means leaving the child of well-to-do parents to do just what he likes . . . what happens is inevitable . . . The child learns nothing at all. So the teacher as well as the child enjoys the advantage of belonging to a leisure class . . .’

However, it is unjust to Hogben to attempt to condense what he says. His book must be got and read by all who take a serious interest in educational and social questions. Incidentally, no technical knowledge of science is required to understand it—which should please those who discovered a few years ago that their own serial number must be higher than one million !

Two last warnings. First : There are lots of bees buzzing about in this book. Still, they’re all very healthy bees and they’re all buzzing in the right direction. Second : There is an impish quality about Hogben’s writing. He enjoys quips and jokes and can never avoid the temptation of cocking snooks at prigs, pedants and platonists.

Not everything that Hogben says is meant to be taken quite literally !

J. A. L.

Co-Education in its historical and theoretical setting. By L. B. Pekin. (The Hogarth Press, 7/6.)

I feel grateful for a painstaking and very readable survey of the whole field of co-education. I think the book must be scholarly because it contains so many words whose meaning I didn’t know, but this merely flatters, like foreign quotations, and in no way detracts from the interest of a racy and attractive style.

Any way of educating children must find its ultimate justification in the success of its products, rather than in the arguments of its apologists, and the author wisely confines mere apologetics to a

few chapters at the end of the book. In the earlier chapters he provides much carefully collected information, very relevant to a consideration of the subject, and shows with admirable clearness the logical inevitability of the sequence: respect for personality—women's emancipation—co-education. The final chapters which present the arguments for co-education are terse, economical, very much to the point, and on the whole avoid exaggeration. The arguments and conclusion certainly obtain the respect and wholehearted agreement of one teacher of long co-educational experience. The statistical chapter on co-education in other countries, coming in the middle of the book, slows up the tempo a little and might have been placed more suitably in an appendix. And the book might have carried more weight with the unconverted if the author could have avoided any show of emotion about views with which he did not agree. But then it might have been dull, which wouldn't have been Mr. Pekin.

Paul Roberts

Life Everywhere. By E. M. Stephenson, M.Sc. (Wheaton & Co., Exeter. Book 1, 2/6, Book 2, 2/9.)

Book 1 is to my mind the perfect Nature Study book for children between the ages of, say, 7 and 10.

The English is good and simple, the type large and clear, there is a wealth of beautiful and carefully observed line illustrations, which will, I think, tempt not a few older children to paint in with equally carefully observed colouring.

The subject matter is beautifully varied and is arranged more or less in chronological order, starting with early autumn for the sake of the school year. There are chapters on ferns, mosses, toadstools, water birds, trees in bud and leaf, snails, pond animals, flowers awake and asleep, and ladybirds.

In each case careful observation and delight in the original plant or creature is fostered by the delicate precision of the drawings; and each of the 36 sections contains 'Things to do', which really are fun to do.

Book 2 is by comparison less good, perhaps only because a second book by the same author on the same theme can seldom recapture the peculiar delight of the first. But there are certain sections in it which should not be missed, such as those on silkworms, earthworms, and the age of trees.

J. Webb

The Healthway Books. George H. Green. (University of London Press.)

This is a series of four books designed as readers for 8 to 11-year-old children. They weave the ordinary commonsense health rules into a really interesting story of a family—Father, Mother, two children, and a dog—and a boy cousin who often comes to stay with them.

Book 1, 'The Four Friends', gives the ordinary routine of living—getting up, washing, breakfast, the after-lunch rest, early bed, etc., but contrives by dint of the story and of the very cleverly-drawn illustrations to make the subject interesting and attractive instead of rather tedious.

Book 2, 'The Wonderful Motor', shows how the family gets a small car and makes the analogy very cleverly between keeping a car and a human body in good running order.

Book 3, 'Little Brother', deals with the arrival of a new baby in the family, from the point of view of helping the infant to grow up healthy and strong rather than from that of conveying sex instruction.

Book 4 deals with the planning of a model house for the family to live in.

The books are very well graded and it would be hard to find a better treatment of the subject or one more likely to appeal to the average 10-year-old.

The School Recorder Book, Part II. By E. Priestley and F. Fowler. (E. J. Arnold, 10d.)

This is a worthy successor to Part I, and takes the reader through the sharps and flats on the descant recorder, with a word or two on ornaments and the trill. The larger members of the recorder family, the treble, tenor and bass, are introduced briefly towards the end with a few pieces for the treble recorder. Players should be warned that although the little photographs show clearly the fingering for each note, they should not be taken as a guide for position, as they show the fingers raised too high. Raising the fingers too high from the holes is such a common fault with beginners that it might have been wise to draw particular attention to this in connection with these photographs.

This book is good value for 10d., and the production is admirable, apart from the music reproduction which falls below present-day standards. It is to be hoped that the success of the first edition may justify the publishers in improving this feature in a second edition.

E. H. Hunt

Edgar Hunt's Recorder News-Letter. (Published ten times a year and obtainable by direct subscription only, 3/- per annum, from Edgar Hunt, 10 Mitre Court Chambers, Fleet Street, London.)

When war was declared last September many people felt that the revival of recorder playing would be seriously impeded. Up to the present, however, exactly the reverse has happened. English manufacturers have quickly responded and are now providing us with inexpensive instruments and music to replace the German products now unobtainable. In recent months, broadcast talks and articles in educational publications have given further emphasis to the value of recorder playing, and it is true to state that at the present time there are tens of thousands of enthusiasts in schools, clubs, churches,

or their own homes, who are regularly deriving benefit and enjoyment from making their own music on the recorder.

To all such players I commend *Edgar Hunt's Recorder News-Letter*, the first issue of which appeared quite recently. Mr. Hunt tells us that the aims 'will be to give subscribers reliable information on all kinds of topics connected with the recorder—the instrument itself, its playing, its music, concerts and various other announcements'.

It can be seen from this quotation that an authority and performer of the eminence of Mr. Hunt will give us, month by month, much that will be of great value to us in our study of these instruments. In addition, I think that this publication will provide a medium through which recorder players and groups will be able to feel they are part of a great

national movement. Scattered as these groups and players are throughout the length and breadth of the country and often many miles from other enthusiasts, this *News-Letter* will enable them from time to time to read of each other's activities and share each other's difficulties.

The personal nature of this publication is revealed by the fact that Mr. and Mrs. Hunt set every word in type and print every copy. This statement rather surprised me, for the result would certainly satisfy a professional printer. This *News-Letter* also provides a link with the days when recorders were so popular in this country. Mr. Hunt writes from his address in Mitre Court, Fleet Street. I believe I am correct in stating that recorder music was being sold in the same Mitre Court about the time when Bach and Handel were born.

F. Fowler

Fellowship News

FRENCH SECTION

French education has been placed under a very severe strain by the large-scale mobilization of men teachers, which has left drastically diminished staffs to cope with the new and exacting problems of the war and the evacuation of children. The French Section of the N.E.F., many of whose keenest members are young men, has now to carry on under increased difficulties without their co-operation and enthusiasm. The work of running the Section falls to Mademoiselle Flayol and Madame Hauser, the Secretary and Treasurer, now deprived of much of the help which other members were able to give.

The Section feels that its work is more necessary than ever and is doing all that it can, with reduced means, to shoulder a mass of new tasks, as well as to maintain contact between its members. The way in which it envisages the educational opportunity thrown up by the war emergency is set out in an Appeal which it has issued to all friends of New Education. This Appeal is signed by its President, Professor Paul Langevin, and the members of the Paris Headquarters Committee, MM. Bertier, Faucher, Piéron and Wallon, and Mmes Flayol and Hauser. The text is as follows :

'This appeal is the echo of those which several members have already addressed individually to the French Section. Far from being suspended, our activity should rise to the situation in which we find ourselves. It is not the young who have least to suffer from the crisis precipitated by the war, and it is on them in any case that the future of the country rests.

'Faced with a crisis, two attitudes are open to us : either to resign ourselves to its consequences and dub them "fate", or to make of it an opportunity, a means of progress, by attacking our difficulties with redoubled ingenuity and boldness, and finding solutions, many of which can pass beyond the routines which we recognize to be powerless and become solutions for the future.

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

'Mobilization has withdrawn many teachers from school. Evacuation has separated many children not only from their school but even from their parents. The congregation of these children in places which had never known such numbers before creates problems in which the school ought to shoulder a large measure of responsibility. It is, above all, on the school that falls the duty of organizing the life, moral and even material, of the children ; of compensating for the absence of the father, now a soldier, and the mother, who has gone to take his place in the factory or the fields ; of creating an environment capable of restoring to them something of the family.

'Our public schools have not betrayed the hopes that have been placed in them. They ought to be reopened rapidly and everywhere for all the children of school age. They are the guarantee of the country's moral health. If at no period in our history, and indeed in no country in the world, unity of conscience has been greater than it is in France to-day, in face of the gravest events, it is because, by the very law which provides it, the school that is open to all neither imposes nor even proposes anything which could clash with the political, religious, or philosophical convictions of any one of the parents who entrust their children to it. Thus based on a consent which is possible for all, the strength of the public school is such that outside of it no truly deep and popular educational movement is conceivable. It is in this conviction that the French Section of the N.E.F. has always worked, happy to count among its members, side by side with teachers in the public service, the heads and teachers of private institutions devoted to the cause of the New Education.

'To-day events leave us no other alternative than to take a step forward or backward. If there are often too few teachers for too many children, whose ages are too different, do we not run the risk of a confused herding together, detrimental to all, unless

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

English Section

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Particulars of aims and activities from THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

we organize work in teams, where older and younger can co-operate, each according to his stage of development and his aptitudes? If the child who has been separated from his own folk suffers from loneliness, must we not create groups in which mutual help and consideration can develop the brotherly sentiments of gratitude and protection? If the urban or suburban child who has been transported into the country feels like an alien, must we not profit by the situation to multiply his motives for activity by regular contact with the creatures and things, so close to his natural interests, which the countryside furnishes in abundance? If the school premises are inadequate, why not use some of the properties which are available in every part of France to found school colonies, where children would find the conditions of physical and intellectual activity, of freedom and initiative, of order and natural discipline, of curiosity and invention, which make a healthy and complete education?

'The New Education sets out to foster the simultaneous development of intelligence and character; to base the acquisition of knowledge on the child's own activity; upon confidence in himself and consciousness of the powers within him to build respect for others, need for fair co-operation, acceptance of equitable and necessary discipline; upon first-hand, step-by-step apprenticeship in techniques both common and specialized, both manual and intellectual, to build a taste and respect for human labour in all its forms.

'It is of these virtues that democracy is made. If we are to prepare for its triumph, we have to develop them in the child and in the school, and the school will not succeed in doing this if it imposes a docility of mind and character which are its exact opposites. Our present circumstances lend themselves to great innovations. The French Section of the N.E.F. desires to be their echo, if not their initiator. It puts at the disposal of its friends, and of all who are concerned for educational progress, its magazine, *Pour l'Ere Nouvelle*, and its bulletin. It invites all to send information and communications on experiments that have been or are due to be made, on needs that have come to light and on difficulties that have been encountered. It will do its best to reply to questions by drawing on the help of those who have special knowledge or experience.'

SWITZERLAND

In November we reported that the Swiss Section of the N.E.F. was urging that Switzerland should prepare for the reception of children and mothers

from the belligerent countries, in the event of the war being prosecuted with all the horrors of bombardment and air raids. The proposal has now, Dr. Ferrière informs us, been taken up by some twenty-five other organizations, which are working together upon it. A committee has been formed, of which Dr. Fritz Wartenweiler is chairman, and the help of persons with suitable experience has been secured. The plan is to prepare, with the co-operation of such persons and the affiliated organizations, the machinery necessary to act quickly and efficiently, if the need arises and the Swiss Government should decide to offer refuge.

For the benefit of readers outside Europe, who may be tempted to suppose that the whole continent is already plunged in irreparable confusion, we would repeat, from Dr. Ferrière's letter, his statement that so far the war has not seriously affected the schools of Switzerland. To take the place of men who have been called up to the army, a considerable number of women teachers and also older men (some of them retired) are taking on new classes. Otherwise the life of the schools is virtually normal.

French Teacher Wants English Correspondent

A French teacher (woman) interested in progressive education would like to correspond with an English teacher. Anyone interested should apply to the N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Sq.; W.C.1.

A Teacher from Spain in Need

Will anyone offer a post to a Spanish teacher (Madrid University), who after fighting in the Republican Army escaped to England with his life and not much more. He has spent his time in England getting experience of English schools and their ways, and is now looking for a post. Special subjects: French, Spanish, with mathematics, geography, games and gym.; also has experience with mental tests. Apply for information to N.E.F.

A Teacher from the Odenwaldschule

now in England, offers her services to a school as 'helping guest', not needing salary at first. Anxious to assist in the building of the communal life of the school. Details from N.E.F.

Nursery School Assistants Wanted

Women's Voluntary Services, 41 Tothill Street, S.W.1., are urgently in need of nursery school assistants—trained or untrained—for evacuated children under five. Small salary offered.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

The Values on which Civilization Rests

Kenneth Ingram

Barrister-at-law ; Author of 'The Defeat of War,' 'Christianity—Right or Left?' etc., etc.

WHEN we are asked to consider the values on which civilization rests, and to consider further how they are to be applied to the field of action, we are compelled at once to face a prior question : what type of civilization have we in mind, what sort of social order do we regard as necessary or practicable for future human progress? Obviously, that prior question cannot be avoided, for to-day the world is in the grip of two opposing theories. We are at the cross-roads, and we cannot attempt to explore this subject until we have taken a positive decision as to which of these roads we intend to follow—or to put the issue perhaps in a more realistic form—which road we believe that mankind is destined to follow.

I am bound within the scope of a short paper to simplify this problem considerably and to define the alternative theories of civilization as authoritarian and democratic. The authoritarian type is no new conception : we have seen it manifested in classic history and in Catholic medievalism, as well as in Nazi Germany. Whether it takes a secular or an ecclesiastical form the theory on which it rests is distinct : authority comes from above, and the ideal which such a civilization seeks to achieve is, therefore, organized obedience and loyalty. The opposite or democratic theory has never yet been fully realized in practice, for any attempt to apply it at once encounters

peculiar difficulties. But its ideal is equally distinct. Authority comes from below, and therefore from the majority of the citizens. The leaders, the statesmen, the executive officers in the political and economic machinery are, accordingly, if the democratic principle is fully applied, delegates who are removable from their positions if the majority of the electorate consider that they are abusing their functions.

It is clear that the difference between these rival conceptions is fundamental. It cuts across, for example, the educational sphere. If the development of civilization is to follow the authoritarian road, the aim of education must be to secure uniformity and discipline. The coming generation must learn the orthodoxy as set out by the divine authority, and education therefore adopts a specifically dogmatic tone. It is not, of course, true that authoritarian education intends to produce exclusively a *slave* mentality : one of its functions, indeed, must be to discover and train those who are capable of becoming leaders. But the claims of orthodoxy are paramount. The goal set before each pupil is that of learning the orthodox code as completely as possible, and any individual tendency to deviate, to fail to accommodate oneself to the uniformity of a mass outlook is regarded as a disease.

On the other hand, democracy—full democracy—would introduce quite a contrary

conception of the educational purpose. For here the responsibility is shifted from the higher authority to the individual. It is the individual who, if he is to play his full part in democracy, must be trained to criticize. It is not uniformity which is sought, but sincerity. We shall be considering presently the difficulties which a democratic system has to overcome, but in general that problem may, I think, be summarized as the effort to harmonize this individual freedom with social obligation. Democracy, in other words, does not contemplate anarchy, for, at our present stage of development, social organization is inevitable and human freedom has therefore to be conditioned by the claims of society as a whole.

To which of these two types of civilization do we give our allegiance? To which of them is society in this country likely to give its allegiance? Which of them, therefore, should our education be designed to promote? I imagine that there is no doubt as to the answer which we should give. I do not think that we need find ourselves involved in any philosophical subtleties in defining our own answer to that question. Systems as well as individuals must be judged by their fruits, and the record of all authoritarianism, whether it is Nazism, Russian Socialism, or Catholicism, is to leave behind it a trail of human misery. I am sure that there is something evil in any conception which, whatever its motive, involves a callous disregard of the sacredness of human life, which is cheerfully willing to sacrifice the lives and freedom of a minority in order to attain its ends. I am convinced, myself, that the foundation value of any decent society must be the recognition that the human, because he is a human person, has certain rights and is entitled to justice even where he is conscientiously compelled to act in opposition to the decisions of the majority. But before we answer too glibly that democracy is the type of civilization for which we stand, and that, indeed, in the present war we are fighting for democratic freedom as against the authoritarian ideal, we should, I submit, take into consideration two conditions which must necessarily modify our conclusions.

First of all, we have frankly to recognize that in a period of war—and in what, moreover,

may prove to be a period of prolonged war and unsettlement—a democratic order tends to adopt more and more an authoritarian policy. It is one of the anomalies of war, that, in waging it, you are liable to imitate the very system which you are fighting against. The State in a war-situation has to introduce emergency measures, it is increasingly unwilling to allow to be exercised the political liberty which it might normally permit. Any point of view which results in an anti-war attitude becomes dangerously subversive, and is accordingly suppressed. An authoritarian system is far better equipped for war. The uniformity which it has enforced, the iron discipline to which its citizens have been drilled, renders it peculiarly efficient in a war-situation. Consequently a democracy, in order to attain equal efficiency in the struggle, is forced to borrow many of the authoritarian weapons. In war the values which always come to the top are those of physical courage, endurance, obedience, leadership—all of them primarily authoritarian values. There must be only one object in the minds of the people if the war is to be waged successfully—namely, victory. I need hardly point to the example of France which, although nominally fighting for democracy, has already—under the exigencies of war—become an authoritarian State.

It will no doubt be urged that even on the most pessimistic estimate, this war cannot be regarded as more than a temporary period, and that its peculiar influences should not therefore affect our conclusions as to the permanent values of civilization. I am not sure that this objection is quite as valid as we might, at first sight, suppose. Once authoritarianism is enthroned it is by no means easy to unseat it, even when the war has ended.

The other qualification which we must bear in mind when we cast our vote for democracy as a civilization, as against authoritarianism, is that authoritarianism usually involves devotion to a cause and therefore gives a purpose to life which is altogether lacking in our own social order. No one, I imagine, who knows modern Germany, however strongly he may deplore the Nazi system, will deny that for thousands of young Germans this devotion to a Fuehrer has given them a purpose, a single-

ness of purpose, which calls out their fullest energies and enlists their complete service; they have found their lives by losing them. Anyone who doubts the depth of this enthusiasm seriously underestimates, I fear, the strength of the enemy.

Nor do I think we can deny the absence of any such wholehearted devotion and enthusiasm in our own country. There are, it is true, certain sectional movements which arouse the devotion of their own adherents, such, for example, as Communism and other religious or quasi-religious causes. But they are *sectional*: it is not the principle of democracy, or the principles which underlie our existing order of civilization, which excite this enthusiasm.

This absence of inspiration is particularly noticeable in the present war. There are very few young men and women in whom I can discover any sense of a crusade in this war. When one has made allowance for the (at present) immobile character of the war, the contrast between the spirit which the last war excited and the absence of that spirit to-day, is, I think, remarkable.

The contrast is so remarkable that it is worth our while to examine its causes a little more closely. It suggests that our tradition of political democracy and the principles of liberty and resistance to tyranny, for which in this struggle we profess to be standing, are failing to draw the response which might have been expected. And this implies, I believe, a certain want of conviction in the integrity of our democracy, whether it is conscious or instinctive. Remember that democratic freedom, especially where it is locked in a struggle with tyranny, is a cause which will rouse the men who are defending it to intense sacrifice and fervour. I do not believe that the generation which is being called to the colours lacks any degree of vitality and stamina. I am quite sure that, as a nation, we are as prepared to endure whatever may be in store for us as courageously as at any stage of our history.

If this analysis is accurate, if we are indeed suffering from the realization that the claims on which our civilization rests are comparatively unreal, if we are being seriously affected by the consciousness that there is a definite lag between what we are supposed to have achieved and

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what we have actually achieved, it is a realization which is only too close to the actualities of our immediate situation. For it is not merely the imperfections of our system, the mass-unemployment, the large-scale conditions of bad housing and undernourishment, the economic insecurity from which the middle classes as well as the working classes are suffering, the grossly unequal distribution of wealth. What is more important from the psychological standpoint is the glaring contradiction between our profession and our practice as a nation. I do not want to indulge in vague generalized self-accusations. But I am bound to insist on the fact that political democracy is largely negated in actuality where the economic machine is undemocratic. We may maintain in theory that, at least in periods of peace, Britons are free to express their political views, that Communists, for example, can be represented in Parliament, and that the *Daily Worker* can be sold at street corners. Yet W. H. Smith & Son and most of the large distributing agencies refuse to handle the *Daily Worker*, and its opportunities for building up a large circulation are infinitely less than those, say, of the *Daily Express*. Nor is it true that in practice each individual has an equal opportunity in life. If he comes of poor parentage the dice are heavily loaded against him. He has to attain the scholarship level before he can knock at the doors of higher education, whereas the child of wealthy parents need only attain the ordinary entrance examination standard. It is not a scratch race; it is a handicap.

The more that we investigate our educational tradition the more I suspect we shall discover that its outlook has been, and still largely is, authoritarian rather than democratic. The whole conception, for example, of the conservative public schools has been to train for leadership—leadership in the services or in business—those who have inherited as a class the divine right to govern. This is an entirely authoritarian concept. One of the characteristic marks of authoritarianism is its insistence on orthodoxy. We criticize Nazi and Marxist education on the ground that only one fixed orthodox interpretation is given to such a subject as history. But I doubt whether the

treatment of history in our schools can be said to have been non-propagandist. I certainly was not aware, in my time as a school boy, that any other interpretation could be given to English history than the imperialist interpretation.

I am not, of course, denying that there has been an increasing element of critical freedom in our tradition, including our educational tradition, and that the authoritarian colouring in education has perceptibly lessened in the last two decades. I have spoken in the past tense, for I am aware of the changes which have gradually been introduced even in the more conventional schools. But that indeed is our contemporary problem: it is precisely because our values are shifting, because we are living in a transitional moment when the old orthodoxies, while by no means unseated, have lost our confidence, that I suggest we are at a disadvantage as against the Nazi and other authoritarian systems. We are not sure, as a nation, what type of civilization we are fighting for. We know what we are fighting against. But that is not enough.

Nor is it enough to have a vague sense that our civilization must change and is changing. That vague sense is widespread enough to-day and it creates a serious danger. That danger, as I see it, is that we are liable to trust far too fatalistically to evolution. But human society is not evolutionary, for it is not organic. It is personal. Progress in human affairs can only be achieved where there is a clear sense of the direction in which one intends to move: history is not made by evolution but by deliberate intention.

This realization that the professed values of our civilization are at variance with what our civilization is actually maintaining, is, of course, no unusual phenomenon in history. The tension between national theory and practice has been a common social experience. What, indeed, eventually happens is that the tension becomes so acute that society can no longer keep up the pretence that it is consistent. Men, as now, become uneasily aware that whereas in theory their society professes to stand for democracy, for equality of opportunity, for freedom both of individuals and social groups, it is actually working for power

—the necessary power to defend its Empire or vested financial interests, its investments, its prestige. Once this awareness of the contrast between professed values and working principles has become acute one of two things must happen, as it must to us to-day. Either we must bring our practice into line with our values, at the cost of immense revolutionary change, or else we frankly redefine our values and bring them into line with our practice.

Suppose, however, that the movement to extend and apply the democratic principle gains the upper hand, what does this involve? What does the extension of democracy mean? I can do no more here than answer this question in the form of the barest summary. It involves at least two developments: it involves the substitution of common ownership of the means of production for private ownership, the establishment of a system of production for use in place of the present system of production for private profit on a competitive or monopoly basis. Secondly, it involves the elimination of the colonial-imperial system, under which tracts of non-industrialized territory are held as the private property of the imperial power and used as an outlet for the investment of accumulated capital.

But to summarize these economic and constitutional changes in the terms of a bald summary is to fail to do justice to the vast social and cultural transformation which they will involve. Perhaps we shall be better able to appreciate the extent of such a revolution if we look back at the consequences of the rise of mercantile capitalism in the sixteenth century and the eventual overthrow of the medieval-feudal order. We see now that this upheaval stretched far beyond economics into the realm of thought. It was reflected in the religious sphere in what we term the Reformation, and it was accompanied by a long series of religious wars, wars which were much more than ecclesiastical in origin, since radically they represented the struggle of a new civilization against an old.

That, I should contend, is the true analysis of what is happening to-day. It is the struggle between the old, the existing form of society against a new conception of civilization which is in its birth-throes. The only difference

between our circumstances to-day and those of the sixteenth century is that the changes involved, the issues at stake, to-day are much more radical.

A new civilization brings with it new values. The values which have been prominent in our traditional civilization and which our education has sought to achieve, have been coloured by the competitive character of our order. The successful man has been conceived as the man who fights his way to the top and overcomes his rivals in the process. Education has also been dominated by the principle that there is a class which naturally inherits the right and the responsibility to rule, and therefore a much larger class whose normal vocation it is to serve the ruling class. The values of a democratic civilization would differ from this conception profoundly. The citizens of a new order would need to be educated to realize the value of service, service to the whole community, and not the acquisition of private profits. There must necessarily be officers, leaders, persons who are to hold higher executive posts in the political and industrial and professional fields. But, in a truly democratic system they are elected to these posts only because, by the verdict of the community, they have shown themselves to be, or promise to be, capable of carrying this responsibility effectively. And this means that the principle of equal opportunity must be applied completely. No class or sex qualifications can be allowed to stand in the way. It also means that society has the power to remove the executive officers if it considers that they are abusing or failing to carry out their responsibilities for the common good. There can, therefore, no longer remain any vested interests, any inherited or acquired right to rule. In education this principle of equal opportunity will mean, I imagine, that all children in the elementary stage will attend the same type of school—as in Scotland—and will pass on to more specialized education only as they reveal particular individual capacities.

There are only two further considerations which I want to examine. The first is the question whether I have been correct in assuming that the new civilization which is emerging is likely to be democratic in nature.

Has not the new civilization appeared in Russia, and can the Soviet system be diagnosed as democratic or authoritarian? What of Nazi Germany? The Nazi would claim that it is his system which represents the new order as against the decaying, effete corpse of the plutocratic democracies. The answer to this question is, in effect, the moral which has underlain the whole of the case which I have been attempting to present. It is not enough, in my view, to try to defeat Hitler by means of armaments and military strategy, or by the attempt to impose an economic blockade. We can win in this struggle—whether the struggle is regarded from the military or moral standpoint—only by transforming our own civilization. The only reply to a new type of civilization introduced on the authoritarian model is an equally transformed civilization which is based on democratic principles. To put our own house in order, to sweep away our own abuses and defects, to build up a decent society, is the one way in which you will create the spirit of a crusade which will be victorious. It is for that reason that I must personally confess my own doubts as to the ability of the present Government to lead us through this chaos successfully. I believe that the Government must necessarily stand for a preservation of the existing imperial and financial interests, and therefore for the old as against the new order. Our real task is not to trust merely to the efficacy of our war-machine: it is to transform our whole social and economic structure, and to work to put into power a Government which is pledged to carry out this revolution. If such a Government were now in charge, it would vitally affect the whole international situation.

The other consideration is that this task may seem to be so immense, the vested interests may appear so entrenched, the old tradition may still be so firmly implanted, that we shall doubt whether such changes can ever be brought about. They may, of course, be forced upon us by the results of a prolonged war of exhaustion. To spend six millions a day for several years is so serious a drain on our resources that it is bound to lead to a comparative collapse. Many people are accordingly led to conclude that the revolution

is bound to occur anyhow and that there is no need to work for a change of Government, since the process of history is itself bringing about the necessary changes.

That, I think, is a false estimate, and for this reason. If that is to be the process it means that the revolution will come about catastrophically, that, instead of taking over a working system and applying it to better uses, you allow the system to crash and you have then to build up again from rock-bottom. Not only does this process involve immense human suffering, but the work of reconstruction is likely to be much less satisfactory than if you are able deliberately to model your new structure. If the house has to be rebuilt under conditions of terrific stress and convulsion, there is much less guarantee that you will actually succeed in building the kind of house which in your saner moments you intended to build.

No, we must not trust to a revolution which is brought upon us against our will. We have to begin to build now, and the moment that we appreciate that this is our responsibility, we cannot fail to realize how formidable are the obstructions in our path. The real opposition to a new order does not in fact come from the political quarter; it lies in the personal field, in the determination of individuals not to release themselves from their conventional habits and modes of life, their familiar social privileges and circumstances. And this fact is itself the key to the problem. The revolution, to be successful, must begin in the personal field, and the personal field is the field of religion. I am myself convinced that it is only a religious force which is going to accomplish this task. It should be unnecessary for me here to insist that religion must not be confused with the existing traditional conceptions. Religion, and particularly Christianity, is essentially the personal attitude to life, *i.e.* the relation of the person to the community. Christianity is fundamentally the force in history which aims at the expression of universal community. Or, to use another type of definition, religion is the unity of all kinds of personal experience and contact, including the political, social, economic and scientific aspects of social relationship.

Christianity is therefore essentially a force in

movement ; it can never be static. But one of our main difficulties to-day is that organized religion is largely static, that it speaks in the mental language of a past age.

The task of nurturing and bringing up to the level of popular consciousness the values of a new civilization involves therefore a religious revival, a revolution in religion itself, in religious belief and practice. To state this may well seem to visualize the task which lies before us as too vast to be undertaken with any serious prospect of success. But I do not believe that such pessimism is justified. I believe that this is a moment when there is stirring in the hearts and minds of our people a great awakening : there are symptoms of virility which convince me, at least, that we are capable of passing through the ordeal and becoming the heirs of a better world than we have yet known. In the last six months, to take only one example,

there has been a remarkable deepening of political consciousness, apparent among all kinds of people, a deepening of political consciousness which is quite phenomenal. Everywhere I find groups of young men and women ardently studying with an intelligent criticism, international, economic, religious issues, in which previously they took little interest.¹

But if such forces as these are to become effective, men and women must understand the situation with which they are called upon to deal. Sentiment is not enough. And therefore it is the educationists who, perhaps more than any section of society, have a responsibility and an opportunity which it is hardly possible to over-estimate.

¹ The immediate appeal which Sir Richard Acland has awakened by his book *Unser Kampf* is another symptom of the same development.

On the Principles of an International School

Minna Specht

**The White House School,
Cwmavon Varteg, Pontypool, Mon.**

IN this time of emergency, of vast efforts and sacrifices, of doubts and despair, it is hard and depressing to sit quietly awaiting one's turn and to let others do the work.

Therefore, every earnest person is prepared to look at his life, his job, with critical eyes. He wants to bring his work into line with the necessities of the day, to take a standpoint in the struggle which is shaking the world. To live to-day without an active interest in what is happening does not only mean isolation ; it means denying life and the future.

Two main educational problems face teachers since the war, and they are somewhat related : that of evacuation and that of post-war education. They are related because in both cases people have been forced by outer circumstances, by politics, to give up traditions and conventions ; and the question is this : are we prepared to help the children who are faced with this change inwardly through education ?

Not only has the young generation which is

growing up on the Continent for years heard nothing but totalitarian ideas, it has adopted these ideas with its will and with its heart. We do not know whether Germany stands behind Hitler, but we know that the Hitler Youth and the B.D.M. (Organization of German Girls) stand behind him and that means Germany's next generation. It was partly force and partly temptation which was used to win youth over. Yet the essential factor was a deep understanding of the child's longing to overcome the inferiority of his age, and a skilful utilization of this longing. The Nazis, as well as the Bolsheviks, ask for the help of the young generation, for their immediate help ; they do not educate *for* life, but *in* life ; they put responsibility on them, not in school communities, but in public life ; and the enthusiasm, the gratitude, the readiness for sacrifice, all those things that make hearts beat, have their dangerous but fascinating life in those children on the Continent.

Progressive education in democratic countries gave freedom, destroyed authority, gave children their chance to live their own happy lives. But the schools forgot in their readiness to offer freedom and to do away with fear that the child is a growing adult, and that workshops and playgrounds do not mean collaboration, but in many cases only a benevolent kind of distance and subordination.

It is therefore not the whole truth to say that German, Italian, and Russian children have been made the tools of their Governments. They are not only instruments, but also participants. These countries have offered an aim to children beyond learning, beyond training for a job.

With this in mind, the idea of a European education, of a constructive international community takes on a fresh impetus and hopefulness. The idea of a peaceful Europe, supported by a generation of pioneers, consciously practised in an international way of life in an international community of children and adults, can add something to that progressive education for which many of us have tried to work.

To avoid the temptation of uniforms, parades and sentimental adoration is not impossible, since the aim is not political but educational. To build up contacts with people who support the idea of international relationship, to fulfil the simple task of getting to know others, to listen to them because you have to live together, should fill the whole life of the school community.

We are very much helped in this by the knowledge that Nationalism is—in the terms of science—an acquired characteristic, and not an hereditary one, and that therefore the dangerous competition of young Fascists can be overcome in one generation if Nationalism is not imposed again on children in schools and in their homes. Sometimes we hear in the Western Democracies that Hitlerism is the result of the Prussian mentality, not the creation of the leader and his partisans. I myself was a Prussian and I feel the truth behind this statement. I was brought up in an atmosphere of nationalism, but I have lost my nationality and I have learnt internationalism as a result of experience and education.

This again leads us to another important deduction. The minds of children are not militarist or internationalist by birth, but open to all impressions. Yet we must not persuade ourselves that a school is international and will engender in them an actively friendly attitude to other nationalities merely because in it children from ten countries are living under one roof. Even our refugee school with children of five nationalities is not international. What does the Polish boy know about his country, the Hungarian child of hers? They have only a faint memory of their native lands. The idea of an international school is not to give hospitality to refugees, but to offer equality to the children of different nations. Ideally such a school should have a Czech cottage, a Polish, an English, and a German, to help the children to keep their national character.

This aim is definitely opposed to the idea of making refugees into Englishmen or Americans as quickly as possible. I can understand the desire to do this from an opportunist point of view. But as Europe will not be French after the war, nor British, and, let us hope, not German, the European conflict will not be solved by refugees giving up the idea of returning to their native countries.

The schools which we can establish in England at the present moment can be international only in a narrow sense of the word, as they will include mostly English children and refugees from countries oppressed by Fascism; but that does not matter. We can widen the scope by inviting people from other nations who know their countries and are fond of them and who show their national individualities.

I would not be afraid of inviting nationalists to the school one day. But not at first. I know—and the knowledge does not disturb me—that the staff of this school will not consist of Norman Angell, Señor Madariaga, Thomas Mann, and Paderewski. It will consist of average members of various countries, international in ideas and national in practice. Here in the new scheme I see a much-needed means of adult education, a means of helping grown-ups to overcome their weaknesses, the boundaries of national feeling and national

conceptions, and to grow to understanding and co-operation through mutual help.

In this work we are assisted by two things : by truth and by tolerance ; truth as a help for understanding and tolerance as a help where we don't understand each other.

What I mean by truth here is the capacity of the human mind to unveil what we call laws in nature and in life, laws of science and laws of ethics. As laws they are general, necessary, open to discussion, to understanding and to misunderstanding. The huge success of science in having broken the dogmatic claims of the middle ages reveals its significance from the cultural point of view. It is not the technical development based on mathematics and physics which matters if we think of international education, though it offers an enormous advantage to human intercourse. What is important is the fact that progress in mathematics, in surgery, in chemistry, in astronomy, is not national but universal, that Niels Bohr, of Denmark, is equal to Rutherford, of Britain ; that, while presumptuous Aryan ignorance could expel Albert Einstein from Germany it could not even touch the international authority of his name. Therefore this fact shows the important place which natural science can claim in an international school because here unlimited understanding can be reached.

It is much harder to reach understanding in the sphere of human activities where morality is concerned. Natural science first undermined the authority of ethical standards. What is left of them is too often convention, fear of nihilism or mere hypocrisy, not convictions which withstand criticism and brutal attacks. The aggression we see to-day means more than the fight between political dictatorship and political democracies. We all know it. It means the fight between nihilism on the one hand and the reconstruction of man's moral nature on the other. What I want to say here is this : we, the teachers in this school, are convinced that morality is based on truth, open to truth, just as natural science is. Human understanding and agreement can be reached by referring to moral principles, which are open to reasoning, not only to belief.

Nowadays this conviction is put to the proof, not only by the danger which menaces such

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agreement, but also by the feeling that this war is much more than the defence of political independence. What the peace-makers of the Democracies—Generals, politicians, economists—will be expected to do is to bring back freedom and justice, not only peace. If these words mean anything they mean more than the individual and national opinions of the Finnish and Czech Prime Ministers, of the English and French governments.

This task, of course, lies far beyond the work of any school. I totally agree with what Sir A. Zimmern said in one of the Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs : to assume that internationalism is congenial to ordinary men and women is to embark on a fruitless activity. To present men with some full-blown schemes of 'world unity' is not the thing which is most urgent. But to start from the opposite end and ask : which is the smallest change which can take place in order to enable men to reap the benefits of the age of power, abundance and interdependence ? If the question is put like this the chance that something will be done is bigger than by writing books and

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planning schemes. Let us start without pretention, without prejudice, on such a small scale. Let us find out whether by living together and helping each other in a school community we can establish a moral basis which stands firm, not through chance sympathy but through standards which we must accept if we are honest and consistent.

Perhaps you will say, that is German, that is the philosophy of Kant. It is. But it is without the pretence of authority. It is a conviction, a conception of morality as a basis for human understanding which we offer and we want it to be put to the proof.

And this conviction will be accompanied by another principle which stands by as an assistant in our work, by tolerance. It was the first English teacher at our school who felt, as many friends who enter our life do, that our belief that we can decide what should be done by referring problems to agreed standards of right or wrong may lead to dogmatism. She said: 'Just you who believe so strongly in definite moral principles can and should be the first to be tolerant. If you give freedom and have patience you will find that everyone can find out the truth for themselves and come to an agreement through reason. You should be patient instead of letting your ideas dominate'. It was one of the best lessons I ever had. It is the way of Socrates, this ability to wait.

But tolerance has a still broader field: it must find its place where reasoning is useless—either because things are not to be classified as true or untrue, or because their truth is hidden from us.

The first sphere is that of personal taste, of habits, customs, traditions, the essential factor in national life, and therefore of outstanding importance in international education.

Go to Bloomsbury House and get your lecture on English tea with milk, English fires, English windows and English blankets. 'How long did you storm against these things?' 'For two years', was the statement of an intelligent and broad-minded German refugee. To feel at home in households and with men does not depend on sharing their opinions about political leadership, the virtues of discretion or social justice—but on the ways they eat, how they sit, whether they say, 'Thank you' or 'No, thank you', and the thousand details and conflicts of everyday life. It may be amusing to talk about all this, but it is hopeless and irritating to try to convert people on these lines. Here tolerance is required, active tolerance. This means training oneself to be independent of circumstances, open-minded to new impressions, without forgetting to have sympathy for those who are attached to their past and who have a strong feeling for the house where they were born.

The last and decisive place where tolerance is asked for is one beyond reasoning and beyond testable experience—religion. We are here in a country where tolerance in religion is fairly practised. I do not know for what reasons. As I understand the need for tolerance it is this: religious feeling needs expression. The language of religion is not the language of concepts but of symbols. I would not object to Moslems, Jews, Catholics, and non-believers in our community on two conditions: that they do not impose their convictions on children and that they do not base their morality on the authority of churches. The children should have freedom to listen, to take part, but also to give up if their interest has gone.

I myself have left the Church and for years

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I felt happier in the sphere of sincerity, where fear and hypocrisy were absent. But this is only negation, negation of wrong things. Religious life means more, it means more even than humanity and listening to the music of Bach and reading the letters of Van Gogh. It means worship, devotion and freedom, freedom far beyond that of Liberalism. What I want to confess is this: I do not know whether I will ever be able to reveal my religious ideas to children in the same way as they know about my sympathies, my political ideas, my struggle for their education. I would consider it one of the biggest helps I could get for educational work if a teacher with a strong religious life would enter the school on the basis of tolerance.

Recognition of truth on the one hand and

tolerance on the other, these are the two pillars of wisdom I believe to be the deciding principles in international education. I know one man who died a few years ago, who had both: he had a hunger for truth through which he became one of the leading men in science; he had the quality of tolerance and with this he gave his help even to those whom he did not know, or to whom he was partly opposed—Fridtjof Nansen, an internationalist of the best type. He was international not by birth, but through work, hard training, self-education. He realized, as all must realize, who hope to bring about a closer association between the peoples, that closer contact does not mean looking at each other, but looking in the same direction.

The Homesick Child

Barbara Low

British Institute of Psycho-Analysis, Institute for the Scientific Treatment of Delinquency. Author of: 'A Brief Outline of the Freudian Theory'; 'Psycho-Analysis and Education'

IN these evacuation days we hear and see much of the thing we call homesickness, and many people of goodwill are anxious to deal with the matter when they meet it, full of sympathy for the unfortunate child suffering from the complaint. But, as we know only too well, sympathy and good intention are not enough—understanding is essential. What is homesickness? It is a state that every child normally experiences in certain conditions, something evolved in home life itself, not a product (as usually regarded) of separation from home.

The child brings to its new conditions (*e.g.* to evacuation) what already is developed within itself, and in the new conditions makes use of these inner developments, which will be strengthened or mitigated according to the nature of the fresh external environment. Let us consider what is 'home' to the young child up to the age of five years or thereabouts. It is his entire world, the actual solid ground he treads on, the food by which he lives, the protection from danger, the source of all he knows as pleasure—human love, friendliness, warmth, comfort, familiarity—that which

makes up his own personality and becomes identified with himself. It is easy to see how closely the little child must become attached to this life-centre—I had almost called it this lifebelt—however lacking in desirable qualities from an objective point of view. The home, viewed externally, may be poor and mean, unlovely, affording only a precarious foothold to its inmates, scant in love and warmth, yet it remains the focus of the child's deepest feelings of love and hate.

All experiences, all emotions, pleasurable and unpleasurable, are linked with the life evolved in the home, which thus helps towards the creation of that rich and complex pattern, woven of so many multi-coloured strands, which we call personality. To deprive the child of its home, therefore, by some sudden drastic change, especially at certain critical ages (such as the age between infancy and five, or later at the age of eleven or so) is inevitably disturbing, however 'normal' the child, the more so if the new conditions are unfavourable. So, leaving aside for the moment the child's specialized inner problems, we can note some effects of the changed external

environment—the new home into which the child enters.

As all writers on evacuation problems have pointed out, the new environment so often involves a complete change in standards of living, manners, customs, food, and dress—perhaps much superior to the child's surroundings—which may to his mind imply criticism of the latter and will inevitably provoke resentment and opposition. Such emotional reaction may show itself in divers ways: in general unhappiness, in a longing to escape and get back to home (this is what we term 'homesickness'), in hostile behaviour, in bad habits, or even in physical illness. I was interested to hear from one headmistress friend of mine in an evacuated area of billets much superior to the homes her children had come from—a very poor London district—that the evacuees were responding to this higher standard of cleanliness and general decent behaviour demanded of them by unrestricted lying about their own homes. Listening to a talk (herself unseen) between a girl-evacuee aged seven and the foster-parent's little daughter of the same age, she heard the latter say: 'Has your mother got a sofa and a piano in her parlour?' The reply of the evacuee, who comes from a two-room tenement slum, housing mother, father, herself, and five other children, was: 'My mother has two parlours and a piano and a plush couch in each.'

This gallant though pitiful attempt to keep even with the far higher standard reveals at one and the same time the little evacuee's fear and disturbance at the gulf which yawns between her own home and the new home which is so different, and her obstinate clinging to the picture (so largely a fantasy) of the home which is hers and means her own familiar world.

This picture must be set up in opposition to the new home, a strange and alien world, however good objectively it may be, and is cherished almost as a point of honour: hence the condition of a morbid concentration on what has been left behind, and a refusal to make any approach to the new conditions.

It is not impossible to see how mitigating circumstances can help the child to cope with this kind of feeling—more or less universal in the young child—and much has already been

indicated by writers on the subject. To begin with, in all evacuation we should aim at keeping the child in conditions which are pretty much the same as those the child has already experienced. I hasten to say that I do not suggest as desirable a dirty, neglectful home, or great privation, or unloving and indifferent foster-parents, even if the child has endured all this in its own home. But what is essential is to avoid an environment which creates too sharp a contrast between the old home-life and the new, especially as concerns highly superior standards, so that the child may not be placed in the dilemma of either having to criticize very adversely his own parents and *their* standards, or having to feel sharp antagonism towards the new conditions. In such a dilemma the child will most probably respond by developing the condition of 'homesickness', sometimes most acutely.

If the foster-parents, however, can provide at least some of the warmth, security, and pleasure that has made home what it is to the child, then he has a chance of feeling 'at home', as we say, and the new home becomes blended with the old one, an extension of the latter. If the new conditions can provide new outlets and activities—as has happened so successfully in many of the reception areas, especially where the city child becomes a dweller in the country—then far more opportunity is provided for a lessening of the too-close attachment to the old home. Here it must be understood that I am not advocating as a desirable thing that the child should turn his back on his own home-ties and his love-relationships with his own family; far from it. I am speaking of *home-sickness*, not *home-love*, in the child, and the need to change this sickness into something productive and enlarging.

This brings me to my real theme—the problem of homesickness—an abnormal reaction to admittedly upsetting conditions, instead of the normal reaction of difficult, but possible, readaptation which should be the lot of every evacuated child.

First, I would like to stress what I consider a basic consideration: namely, that no child under three—in some cases four—should be separated from its mother (unless a bad mother, obviously destructive to the child)

even if this necessitates that the child remains in a possibly dangerous area. Let us not forget that emotional shocks and perils may be every bit as great—may, indeed, be of much greater permanent effect—than actual physical dangers. As already mentioned, true homesickness is a result of a development in the child's own personality, the consequence of a disharmonized condition, partly produced and certainly stimulated by unsatisfactory external environment. It has shown itself in the home before it is revealed outside it, though not always in the same manifestations. In one of Shakespeare's plays a character, speaking of the young hero, says, 'Oh, he is sick of love'. To which another commentator replies, 'Not so, rather is he sick for love of his own fancies'. This exactly describes what true 'homesickness' means: a state in which the child becomes 'sick'—that is to say, disharmonized—owing to his own fantasy picture of home and his own relation to it, or chiefly, to his parents, brothers and sisters, who all make up 'home'.

Such a fantasy-picture will have in it a large element of guilt. The child who is acutely aware, often unconsciously, of his hate-feeling, as well as love-feeling, to the beings who mean most to him, who make his world (his home), will inevitably experience within himself insecurity (his 'bad' self may at any moment be found out and love will then be withheld), doubt (owing to the conflict between his love and aggression) and fear of some impending doom. Such feelings, very intolerable for the child to endure, are concealed from consciousness and compensated for by an intense clinging to the home and the loved ones in it—these become his life-belt which affords his only safety amidst the raging sea of his tumultuous emotions. Small wonder that he clings to it with desperation! Such doubts and fears express themselves constantly in the life of the child at home, but knowledge is needed to translate and interpret the ways of expression. For instance, we are all familiar with the child who fears to go to bed, to be left in bed alone, to go into an empty room, however familiar, to leave the nursery and go into the dining-room or vice-versa, to go to school, or be left in school—these are some of the various ways in which he demonstrates

his too great attachment to the home or any particular part of it, which really resolves itself into the clinging to an individual—most often the mother—and the hoped-for assuagement of fear—a hope which inevitably remains unsatisfied.

Another cause for homesickness is the child's aggression (created by jealousy towards one or both parents, rivalry with brothers and sisters, to mention two main factors only) which makes him feel that this violence within him will at any time escape and do the harm which so far he only wishes. He sees himself as the fairy-tale character whose magic words 'abracadabra' can bring about unforeseen and possibly terrible consequences. If he feels angry and destructive towards the people and things in his home, then the Fates may fulfil his hostile imaginings and he may find parents, brothers and sisters, home itself, either destroyed or vanished away. In self-defence against such a doom, he clings to home and the loved-hated ones with all his might. I know at the moment of a child who cannot let his mother out of his sight for a moment, he is so filled with terror by her absence—a true 'sickness' proceeding from his aggression-fears; and of another—a girl of six years—who is perpetually worried by fears lest the house is unsafe when she is away from it (perhaps on fire, or burgled, and so forth)—again a 'sickness' which keeps her home as a perpetual object of anxiety before her eyes, and never allows her to be absent from it in thought and feeling. 'Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also', but the 'treasure' can turn into a sinister and oppressive burden, as we see so plainly in the little child's intense anxieties over the persons and things it treasures most.

Out of such inner conflicts proceed further developments which express themselves along more definitely mental and intellectual paths, helping to strengthen the undue fixation to the home. For instance, the child's guilt-fears make all new or strange experiences things to be shunned, since routine is so much more reassuring; from this comes the dislike (really the fear) of experimenting, of new adjustments, of new knowledge, of the functioning of curiosity, which is expressed in a turning away

from the new and a flight back into the old familiar environment—a return, not so much out of love for the home as of fear of the world outside home which really mirrors the danger-side of home. Much can be done by parents and those parent-figures who surround the child to modify this ‘sickness’ if the condition is not too extreme. The parents, especially the mother, can help to detach gradually the child from its close relationship with herself. She can develop his interests for all sorts of things: animals, other children; she can encourage him to get pleasure in his own independent activity, she can keep home always as the centre but yet a centre radiating out in many directions. That is to say, she will be capable of achieving some of this if she is not unconsciously and consciously refusing to part with the child, clinging to every fragment of his love and interest for herself. So helpful in extending the child’s interest is the parents’ own interest in the world outside, as well as inside, the home. For if the parents themselves suffer from this same fixation to home (as far too many adults do, and indeed raise such an attitude to a virtue) the influence on the child in the same direction will be strong. But if the parents can show the child early in life that the home’s love-interest can be extended to books, pictures, people, ideas—that these are part of the home—then it will be less difficult and less painful for the child to include

in his emotions towards home these other interests, and bit by bit weave them into the fabric of ‘home’. Thus he may be enabled to escape homesickness and turn the latter into love for home in the limited and wider meaning. So we might lead on to the idea that a true nationalism is essential to, by no means incompatible with, a genuine internationalism.

But let no one think that such harmonized development is easily achieved: much understanding, much toil, is involved in reaching towards the goal.

There will, of course, always be cases of such extreme and neurotic homesickness that only personal psychological treatment can deal with the situation, but these I believe will become rarer with a better understanding on the part of adults.

Evacuation problems are concrete, immediate and widespread, and much honour is due to those who are so courageously tackling them. Even so, evacuation problems are as such temporary phenomena. In our desire to deal helpfully with them, let us not forget that these problems do not arise out of evacuation—they show themselves in and develop further from, evacuation conditions. Always the fundamental human character problems remain, and it is these the teachers and all concerned with education must keep steadily before them. Let causes rather than symptoms be our concern.

Youth, Work and the Community

Ormsbee W. Robinson

Instructor in Ethics, Fieldston
School, New York

ONE of the most promising movements in American life to-day is that which brings young people of high school and college age into active relationship with various communities. Certain European countries discovered some time ago the possibilities of calling upon youth to participate in the life of the nation. The democracies have until recently left such activity largely to individual chance. Only under the impact of the de-

pression has the government undertaken to organize a programme which would meet the economic and social needs of young people between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four, and their plans were made only for those in great economic need. There are many other young people who, for psychological and emotional reasons, need similar experiences, and it is to this group that the volunteer work camp movement addresses itself.

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In the early 30's the American Friends Service Committee undertook to enlist the aid of our youth in the adventure of building a better social order through peaceful and constructive action, and in this process to give citizenship in a democracy a new meaning. Two years ago several schools under the sponsorship of the Progressive Education Association organized an experimental work camp for students of high school age. The work was continued last year, and an independent organization, the Associated Junior Work Camps, Inc., has now been formed by a group of educators, former campers, and parents of campers to promote this movement.

The first year a group of twenty-five boys and girls, accompanied by a staff of five, spent eight weeks on a farm owned by a large New York settlement house and used as a recreation centre for the families and young people it served. The site was chosen because it gave opportunities for a wide variety of useful work. In the neighbourhood there were a number of economic enterprises which could be visited and studied. It was directed by people who were anxious to forward the

project not only for the benefit of the farm, but also for the benefit of those doing the work. And it provided a community where people of many different backgrounds were brought into close association.

It took some time for the people who used the farm to become accustomed to a group of earnest youngsters who insisted on working six hours a day and yet paid for the privilege. Many of these people had perforce thought of work as a drudgery, but before the summer was over they had caught something of the zest with which the boys and girls performed even the most menial tasks, and through the common language of work there grew a friendship and mutual respect among all members of the community.

After a thorough survey of the needs of the farm by students and staff it was decided that the chief task was to remodel an old farm house. The obvious need and utility of such work caught the imagination of all, for, if the building could be made fit to live in, it meant that at least six additional families from the congested areas of New York could utilize the facilities of the farm for the two week periods.

For the rest of the summer it was the chief task, and, when completed, it became a symbol of achievement. The first few days were spent tearing down the old plaster, taking out the windows and preparing for reconstruction. Then followed replastering, laying new floors, repairing windows, wiring for electricity, constructing new porches and adding a fresh coat of white paint.

Meanwhile other groups were helping with the farm work. There was a dairy herd to take care of, hay to be mowed and brought in, old pastures to clear, an orchard to be pruned and land to be prepared for reafforestation.

Equally important, but less exciting, were the small tasks around the camp itself. Every morning a squad helped to prepare the vegetables; another squad cleaned up the camp and did its share of the laundry.

After six hours work it was time for recreation—swimming, reading, painting or just loafing. The evenings were often devoted to discussing topics which grew out of the daily work or general topics of social change. Perhaps most important were those at which plans were made for the ordering of our community life; for instance the organization of the work, the character of the evening activities, the proper time to retire.

Closely connected with the work programme was a carefully planned series of trips to study the economic and social life about us. Textile mills, iron and steel foundries, slate quarries, model and experimental farms, modern laundries, and a co-operative community set up by the Resettlement Administration were among the places visited.

The following summer was spent in much the same way. Another house was reconstructed and many of the farm buildings were repaired and given a coat of paint. At the end of each summer a meeting of the campers was held to consider the progress they had made and to make suggestions for projects for the next summer.

The comments of the campers themselves on their experiences are very illuminating. Here is a quotation from the introduction to the 'Camp Log': 'All this work was new to most of us, as could be seen in the way we peeled potatoes and washed clothes at the

beginning of the summer. As the summer moved on, however, we began picking up the different skills of all our jobs, for we soon found out that there is no such thing as "unskilled labour"; we discovered that there are skills even to the simplest jobs. "The skills of the trades" were not the only things we learned, for we all got a good lesson in co-operative living.'

Simple, co-operative living has been the rule each summer, and those of us who have been connected with the programme think this very important. There is the widest possible sharing of experience. The work is planned for the efficient running of the farm, but with the question always in mind: what meaning does it have for the worker? Does it make a difference in his life? The work should be done, and it should have quality, but these are secondary to the human relations that grow out of the joint enterprises. For example, the different jobs done during the reconstruction of the old house assumed real importance when, after a long discussion, one camper said it was important to do every job well, otherwise the next fellow was hampered. The idea of interdependence became a vital principle.

This conception of the job as instrumental to the growth of the individual led us to see to it that each camper did a fair variety of jobs. We were not interested in vocational training, as most of our campers are destined for business and the professions. We wanted them to share all the experiences available. They discovered that even wielding a pick takes physical skill and co-ordination as well as endurance. The difficulties presented by an obstinately dirty pair of socks was a new experience. The care and labour required before a bottle of milk can be delivered to an urban consumer was a sobering and revealing adventure.

It is hard to imagine how alien such simple experiences are to our urban young people. Living in a crowded world, it is hard for them adequately to visualize the network of human skill and effort that lies behind each product. Books may help, but observation and first-hand experience are necessary—the earlier in life the better.

They also found that good workmanship

spoke a language recognized and understood by others. In their contacts with the farm community they had achieved the respect of people of a different background, and in their own little community they had learned the give and take that is so necessary for people to get on together. Common problems had been faced and working solutions had been found. Problems of community organization had been sensed and an insight into the difficulties, as well as the promise, of a democratic life had been gained. Many of the problems to which they had assumed there were easy answers were now seen to challenge their best efforts by their complexity.

It might be asked whether such an experience would be of any value in the life of the school. As far as our own school is concerned, I can say very definitely 'yes'. Not only was there evidence of growth in the individuals who had attended, but their enthusiasm and their insight into the problems of group living were brought into play in the life of the school. Soon after school opened the student paper ran an editorial headed 'Learning by Doing'. Reports were given at an assembly, and a demand grew on the part of the students to be given an opportunity to do constructive work around the school and in the neighbouring community.

In conclusion, it is important to point out that the technique of a work camp might easily be used to exploit the young people. Those

promoting the work must be imbued with a keen sense of responsibility towards youth. They should have an understanding of the needs of youth to-day and should be able to create a framework in which the principles of democracy can be practised and vitalized. It is to be hoped that within the next few years greater numbers of young people will be given the opportunity to make some contribution to the life of the communities. The prolonged state of financial dependence of adolescents will probably continue, and if the school does not provide opportunities for adequate social and economic participation, the discontent and frustrations of young people may be misdirected and misused.

These experiments are being continued, but they do not solve the whole problem, though it is hoped that, in a modified form, the technique will find application in many schools and communities. Those who have been to the work camps have found new meaning in their everyday experiences and a sense of direction and understanding which helps them to achieve an inner integrity. They find that they can do things which the adult community recognizes as valuable, and while there may be no pecuniary reward, the basic satisfaction of a job well done remains. One might say that Emerson's conception of *man thinking* as a symbol of democracy is extended to include *man working*. The life of the school becomes integrated with the life of the community, and so restores a sense of wholeness.

Camping at Wytham

E. H. Taylor

Cowley St. John School, Oxford

ABOUT ten years ago Colonel ffennell of Wytham Abbey offered a part of his estate for the use of elementary school children. Two pioneer teachers seized this opportunity to take their classes into the country to work one day each week during the summer months. At first they used a converted barn as their headquarters, going into the woods and fields for sketching and nature study when weather permitted. On wet days much could still be done in the barn in this way, though more time was

then given to academic subjects and country dancing.

After five years of progress, during which time the Local Education Authority had given its sympathetic support to the scheme, Colonel ffennell investigated the possibilities of school camps. Finding that two local schools and others further afield were anxious to make the experiment, he built a dormitory on a sunny sheltered slope. This was large enough to accommodate thirty-five children, and had a room for teachers at each end.

The girls of our school were delighted to spend a whole fortnight in the country, for many of them had never slept away from home before, and the beds were soon booked. The first venture was so successful that two weeks at Wytham in July have come to be a part of the normal routine of the school. In an adjoining field there is now a second and larger dormitory, accommodating forty-five children.

Each year has seen improvements, easing organization and offering further inducements to abandon town for camp life and paving stones for grassy paths. Both dormitories have been provided with wash-houses and adequate water sanitation. Further up the hill there is now a building containing bathrooms, a drying room with hot pipes and a good furnace for heating the water.

The increased accommodation made it necessary to improve the facilities for catering. The old kitchen stove was replaced by modern gas cookers, scullery and larders sprang into being, and to these a covered way along an old wall formed a sheltered approach. The kitchen staff, too, was provided with better sleeping quarters.

A beautiful swimming pool, with three shutes and a diving board, is undoubtedly the most popular spot. Nearby is a paddling pool for little ones. Shrieks of laughter echo from the next field, where queues wait at swing, jungle gym and see-saw, all provided by Colonel Fennell.

Early each year a letter is circulated to parents, giving all the necessary details about the forthcoming camp. This is accompanied by an enrolment form, which is signed by the parent, undertaking to pay the fee of sixteen shillings. Very poor children are taken free, these necessitous cases being helped by grants from the school fund.

A caterer is then sought and discussions follow about tradespeople and menus. It has been found that one shilling to one shilling and twopence per head per day has provided very good and ample food, though other schools have managed a good and satisfactory diet for ninepence.

The next task is collecting equipment. Each teacher coming to camp draws up a list of what she will need for her special subject.

She also assumes responsibility for one or more items of the general equipment, *e.g.* library, sport, medicine chest, portable altar and fittings for the chapel.

A few weeks before the exodus a campers' meeting takes place. Kit lists are issued and discussed, questions asked and answered.

About ten days ahead of camp a medical inspection is held. This gives time for coping with any unwelcome visitors a girl may unwittingly have been bringing with her.

The great day dawns. Fathers and brothers arrive at school carrying suitcases, kit bags and bedding bundles, and the girls swarm into waiting buses while mothers gather at the gate to see them off. The van runs to and fro with equipment until all the kit has reached its destination five miles from the town.

The exciting hour arrives when the order is given to take luggage to dormitories, fill palliasses with fresh, sweet-smelling straw, sew them up with needle and thread and make beds. The girls bring their own blankets, also the luxury of sheets and pillows if desired.

Towels, soap and other toilet accessories are taken to the wash-houses, and often a new toothbrush and fresh tube of paste gleefully exhibited show that tooth cleaning is something of a novelty.

Then we are ready for a well-earned dinner. The girls bring their own picnic meal to facilitate work in the kitchen on the first day. A rest hour follows and the first swim.

A high tea is provided to atone for the sandwich lunch, library books are chosen, and letters or postcards written to inform parents of safe arrival. Before the scamper and excitement of preparing to settle down for the first night in camp each girl is given a bottle of milk and bread and butter.

A warning whistle to end conversations and get into bed is followed by the 'Silence' blast and the prowling of the teacher on duty to see that those who can sleep may. Fresh surroundings prevent many from settling into slumber, and there is keenness to rise at an early hour the next morning. For the sake of those asleep no infringement of the silence rule is allowed until the rising whistle at 7.30 a.m. As this echoes over the hillside there is a flutter of bird wings in the copse and a scuffle of

rabbits back into hole and hedge. Then camp routine begins. The time-table is of course adjusted to suit the conditions and devised so as to derive the best from them. The project has received nothing but generous support and interest from the Board (one Inspector camped with us for a long week-end, and another was in no way perturbed at finding the Head Teacher in the swimming pool, looking for a glass eye). Life at Wytham has become a combination of holiday camp and school work, with an elastic daily programme adapted to the mood of the elements.

Why does the staff of this school consider it worth while organizing a camp each year? What are the benefits reaped by the girls to justify the work entailed? Let us deal first with the question of health and the attention given to it.

Before camp starts the Head Teacher attends the medical inspection and receives advice about any idiosyncracies in the health of individual girls, so that special precautions can be taken where necessary, treatment commenced or continued or additional food given.

The medicine chest and isolation room is in charge of a senior teacher with V.A.D. qualifications and experience. A telephone has been installed in the kitchen, so that a doctor can be summoned immediately if need arises.

The diet is carefully balanced and approved by an expert. For the first two or three days extra fresh fruit and vegetables are given to counteract any constipating tendencies caused by fresh environment, food and water.

Until there is complete charge of a child for twenty-four hours of the day it is somewhat difficult to estimate the influence of the sleep factor in health. It is interesting to watch eyes brighten and sagging bodies become more alert after a few days of fresh air and adequate sleep, often lacking in many homes where other conditions are good. The rest hour after the mid-day meal is of great value and gradually comes to be appreciated by the girls. The numbers of them who sleep at this time increase day by day, and the teacher in charge keeps strict vigilance to see that this is made possible.

It is a rare thing to find a child catching

cold, even in the wettest camp, if care is taken about footgear. In wet grass Wellington boots or canvas shoes and bare legs are better than leather shoes and wet socks or stockings which take longer to dry.

An interesting and exciting hour before and after camp is when the weighing machine is produced. Out of seventy-five girls camping we usually find that about sixty-five have gained weight, sometimes as much as 6 to 7 lbs. Those who have gained most are nearly always children from poor homes who have been taken to camp for a part payment or free. During a discussion about the value of this annual effort an Inspector remarked, 'This speaks for itself'. Usually the weight of about five remains stationary and there is sometimes a slight loss of $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 lb. in the remaining five. It has been discovered that surplus fat has been removed from the sluggish by extra outdoor activity. Last year the medical adviser of one camper was pleased to find that she had lost 3 lbs., which even a special diet had failed to achieve.

Much good is gained, too, by the social life; table manners improve, the only child or the shy girl becomes a better mixer and there is a greater understanding of the need for a give and take attitude in life.

What of the spiritual values which cannot so readily be assessed?

As they begin to appreciate the peace of the countryside a calm settles upon the girls and the most difficult become less problematical. Those who have had occasion to return home for a few hours have been heard to remark on returning, 'Isn't it good to be back?', 'Weren't the streets noisy and dusty?', 'I felt so sorry for the people in the town!'.

Then why as a nation are we so slow to recognize the advantages of educating children in a more natural and healthy environment? Is a fear of the unknown one reason? Could we not emulate the wisdom of the Scout and Guide movements by first taking our teachers, as they take their leaders, to experience life under canvas, so that they may be more ready to 'hope for the best and be prepared for the worst' in the greater luxury and security of a school camp?

A Camp School on a Farm

E. M. Hibburd

Secretary, King Alfred School

FOR many years a week in camp has been a part of summer term routine at the King Alfred School, Golders Green, and, when it became prudent to plan a possible war-time refuge, it was decided that it would be in the best interests of the children to make our camp scheme serve this purpose. It was thought that in the lamentable event of war children would settle down more quickly in familiar surroundings which they already connected in their minds with special happiness. So it proved in the event. 'Do you mind?' was asked of a girl who had been hustled across Europe to us in the early days of September. 'Oh, no', she said, 'it's too much like camp for minding'.

With this idea in view a farm was acquired in 1937 at Royston, Herts, with 180 acres of land which had been out of cultivation for five years, two serviceable cottages, beautiful and spacious farm buildings, and, from its position on a ridge nearly 600 ft. above sea-level, with distant views north, south, east and west. Here for three summers form after form in rotation spent a week under canvas with a refuge from bad weather in the smaller barn, which we provided with a huge brick fireplace and a concrete floor.

In 1938 it became clear to staff and parents that more permanent provision must be made if a winter was to be safely weathered, and parents met together and agreed to erect a semi-permanent wooden building which should in the first place provide proper sanitary accommodation and drainage, bathrooms, kitchen and dormitories. Enough money was contributed to enable this scheme to be put in hand, and by the end of the summer of 1939 the building, with four dormitories, was ready for occupation if needed. The contribution asked from each parent was £10, but this had later to be increased to £15, a sum which compares very favourably with the government's expenditure of £50 a head on camp schools. No provision was made for furnishing; each child was asked to provide his or her own

bed and bedding, and the furniture and equipment of the London day school was to be brought if necessity arose. The staff made their way to Royston in the last days of August, and individual children began to arrive. The first three weeks were holiday time for the children, who were able to watch and help in the rapid transformation of barn and stables into classrooms and craftrooms. The long range of stables which had been re-roofed in anticipation of its conversion was now partitioned into four, new windows were put in and duly shuttered, a large open brick fire-place was built so that wood from the estate might help to provide the necessary heating. The other rooms were provided with coke heating stoves brought from the London school. Lighting was most adequately provided by 'Tilley' hanging lanterns which can be carried out of doors when necessary. Matting was laid on the new concrete floors, school equipment fetched from London and installed, and all was ready for the opening of school on the appointed day.

Then began for these children from a London day school the fun and the difficulty of accustoming themselves to the life of a country boarding-school. Individuals used to very different hours of going to bed had to agree to the necessity of a common bedtime for those of about the same age. Children who had never liked certain foods learned, not from compulsion, but from the example of their neighbours, that their prejudices had no foundation. Children who had never cleaned a bath or swept a bedroom learned to take a hand in housework. Members of the staff who were dubious of their capacity to cook an egg successfully learned that and more from their better educated colleagues. Before school began staff and parents shared the duties of cook, housemaid, parlourmaid and nursemaid. After the term began it was necessary to employ a cook for the midday dinner, and helpers for cleaning, but the tradition was established, and it will be difficult for any of

our children here to hold that any job is undignified.

The school time-table has been reorganised so that as many of the daylight hours as possible may be spent out of doors. The morning follows its normal course, the afternoon hours are shortened and partly spent on open-air occupations. The children are free from 4.0 to 5.30, when they have high tea, after which the younger do 'prep.' for one hour and the older for two hours, during which time full use is made of the help given by the supervising member of staff. In this way the academic work has not been allowed to suffer and in many individual cases there is a notable increase in the amount achieved.

The farm is worked by an Old Alfredian, assisted by two other Old Alfredians. The farmer's wife is an Old Alfredian, and a very young future Alfredian coos or cries in her pram in the garden. Fruit, vegetables and eggs are all produced on the estate, and this fresh food is one of the chief reasons for our high standard of health. 'What is it that makes me so hungry?' enquired a ten-year-old girl from an overheated London flat. She has had only one rest day in bed since last September, having previously spent a large part of each year in bed with recurrent colds and their complications. Even the winter of 1940 has not defeated the children's powers of resistance: epidemics, up to the time of writing, have passed us by, and the children's health and

attendance records surpass their previous high level. Incidentally we have learned that the main charm of snow lies in its transitoriness, and the most enthusiastic toboganners wearied of it before it disappeared. The succeeding mud is trying mainly for the grown-up who imagines for the children discomforts they do not feel. 'This', said a small boy with shining face to the headmistress fastidiously picking her way across the farmyard, 'this is my favourite puddle, the one I love much the best.'

The life and work of the farm affords the children much to observe and some opportunity for help. One enterprising girl keeps a goat which she milks daily at 7 a.m. One boy surprised himself and his parents by making a handsome profit at Christmas on the two pigs he had bought and fattened. The Advisory Council, always realist in the quick adaptation of its rules to new conditions, speedily added to them those necessary to safeguard farm animals and implements.

A pleasing fact has been that a large number of parents have followed the school to Royston, and live in the town with their children, sending them as day pupils while they themselves give invaluable help in the kitchen or wherever else it is needed. This extension of shared work proves a very happy feature of a school which has always been fundamentally based on the principle of co-operation between parents and staff.

Fellowship News

ENGLISH SECTION

The Annual Conference of the English Section took place on 29th March to 1st April at Stockwell College, Bromley, with a total attendance of over 100. The theme was *Education in Wartime and After*, and the urgency of the problems involved led to brisk and vigorous discussion from the very start.

The background of the world crisis was laid in by Mr. Kenneth Ingram, who opened the Conference with an address on 'The Values on which Civilization Rests—How to strengthen and preserve them'. (This was so deeply appreciated that, at the general request, Mr. Ingram pursued the subject further at a later session.) The second speaker, Mr. Bertram Lucia (Bootham School), carried the discussion into our particular sphere, 'The Importance of Enlightened Education in War-time'.

The second session was devoted to 'The Emotional

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Problems of the Evacuation'. Under the chairmanship of Mr. G. A. Lyward, various aspects—including the emotional problems of the evacuated teacher—were handled by Dr. Sybille Yates, Miss Barbara Low and Dr. John Bowlby.

The morning session on the second day bore the title 'Education in War-time'. Miss L. S. Selley (Lordship Lane School, Wood Green) described her experiences as a headmistress who had been both evacuated and recalled to an evacuable area. Miss Ruth Thomas (Central Association for Mental Welfare) discussed the possibilities of education under war-time conditions, with a wealth of original suggestions.

At the afternoon session we turned our thoughts to what might be made of education after the war. Miss Marjorie Reeves (History Tutor, Oxford University) presented an extensive vision of changes

CLEARANCE OF NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP PUBLICATIONS

In order to clear its stock cupboards the N.E.F. is selling
off its remaining publications at drastically reduced prices.

The Freedom We Seek	Published at 5/-	Reduced to 1/-	Postage 4d.
A New World in the Making	„ 7/6	„ 1/-	„ 6d.
The Challenge of Leisure	„ 5/-	„ 1/-	„ 5d.
Learning to Live Together	„ 2/6	„ 6d.	„ 2d.
Education in a Changing Commonwealth	„ 3/6	„ 6d.	„ 3d.
Full Report of International Conference held at Nice in 1932	„ 30/-	„ 1/-	„ 6d.

HANDBOOKS

The Coming of Leisure (The Problem in England)	Published at 2/6	Reduced to 6d.	Postage 2d.
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BOOKLETS—Published at 1/-, now reduced to 1d. each, postage 1d.

The Task of Education in a World Crisis (J. van der Leeuw)
Creating a Culture Adapted to Modern Life (Goodwin Watson)
The Reorganisation of Education in England (E. Salter Davies)
Social Evolution and the New Education (Jean Piaget)
Education for Intercultural Understanding (G. H. Green)

Postage free on orders of 5/- and over.

N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1

up and down our educational system which will be required if the philosophy underlying the whole Conference is to be put into practical effect.

The evenings were kept free of lectures. The first one, just after our arrival, was agreeably spent with a programme of films for use in school. This was arranged by the Gaumont British Instructional Ltd., to whom we are very grateful. The other two evenings were reserved for open discussion, under the leadership of Professor Brian Stanley and Mr. A. K. C. Ottaway, and very lively they were.

So much for the bare skeleton of the programme. Those who missed the meat will be comforted to find Mr. Ingram's address in the present number of *The New Era* and some of the other addresses in later numbers. The success of the Conference was, as always, due to the interplay of personalities—the speakers; the chairmen, Mr. J. Compton and Mr. A. J. Lynch, and those already mentioned; our hostess, Miss Marjorie Gullan; and, of course, the members themselves. It was a great pleasure to have with us Senora Comas, who brought us a vivid account of education under fire in the Spanish War; Mr. Yusuf Ali, a former President of our Punjab Section; Mr. Oye, of Norway; Miss Ginsburg, of Canada; Miss Kettles and Mr. Crampton Smith, representing the Educational Institute of Scotland. And we are grateful to Mr. Lionel Hale, of the *News Chronicle*, who spent part of one day with us and devoted an article to the Conference.

The main result of the week-end was to send us all back to our work encouraged by contact with

one another and by the exchange of ideas. In war-time circumstances this means a good deal, for the burden of work under difficulties and often in some loneliness is heavy. It was good to meet our colleagues in different parts of the educational field; all types of state school were represented, as well as private schools, universities, training colleges (both staff and students), administration, psychology and parents. Still more useful, perhaps, was it to get the reassurance that we are all thinking forward into the future, determined that out of present upheaval education shall extract real and lasting gains.

Freudian Study Group

A discussion group for the study of Freudian Theory will shortly be formed. The numbers must be limited to about twenty. Anyone wishing for information is asked to apply to Miss Barbara Low, Institute of Psycho-Analysis, 96 Gloucester Place, London, W.1.

FRENCH SECTION

The Bulletin for February-March reports that, despite the disintegrating effects of mobilisation, many local groups are resolutely continuing their work. The atmosphere of war is unfavourable to all work which consists largely in the spreading of liberal and progressive views. Nevertheless, the French Section is finding that separation from their children makes many parents readier to think about education, and is turning its efforts in the direction of parent education.

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

English Section

Membership : including *The New Era* is on a sliding scale from 10/6 to £2 . 2 . 0.
 „ without *The New Era*, 5/-.

Group Memberships : Staffs of schools and groups of students may combine to take out any of the above subscriptions.

Particulars of aims and activities from THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

The President of the Section, Professor Langevin, and two of the Vice-Presidents, Professor Piéron and Professor Wallon, are engaged on work of national importance, in the midst of which, however, they manage still to maintain their contact with the Section.

One distressing piece of news is that our friend, Monsieur Freinet, whom many will remember from the Cheltenham Conference, has been interned. This is a blow to the Section, for he was one of its most valued and enthusiastic members. It is also disquieting from a wider point of view, since we are told that his political opinions, without any incorrect action on his part, have sufficed to procure his internment. A number of English members of the N.E.F. have signed a protest against what, on the evidence before us, seems to be a serious infringement of the civil liberties for which Britain and France are fighting.

HUNGARY

Mlle Maria Baloghy writes that the N.E.F. Group is busy working for educational reforms, especially in the sphere where education touches social problems. It has not been possible to publish the magazine for some time, but it is hoped that the next issue will appear during the next few months. Mlle Baloghy herself is continuing her courses for women and her lectures for the Folk High School movement. She has been sent by the Minister, President Count Teleki, to conduct courses in many towns on social and educational subjects. New Folk High Schools are being founded, and also boarding schools for the scattered children of the Puszta. A recent event of importance to the New Education movement was a week's visit from Professor Piaget, who was invited to Hungary by the Minister of Education.

Book Reviews

Life in the Nursery School. By Lillian de Lissa. (Longmans, 7/6.)

This book is the fruit of many years of interested and affectionate and intelligent observation of children by one who has worked devotedly with and for them, and been humble and wise enough to learn from the child himself what he needs for his happy and harmonious growth. Miss de Lissa has had vast opportunities for the study of children, since she has been Principal of Gipsy Hill Nursery Training College since 1917 and a worker in the

B.I.E.

The Bureau International d'Education has undertaken to provide books for prisoners of war who are either teachers or students in training, to enable them to use their enforced leisure to continue their professional and cultural studies. Individual parcels have been sent to prisoners in Germany, France and England. To make this possible, a fund has been opened. The Swiss Federal Council has made a grant of 10,000 Swiss francs, and it is hoped that educational bodies all over the world will also contribute. The address is : Miss Ruby D. Cusden, B.I.E., Palais Wilson, Geneva.

INTERNATIONAL ESSAY COMPETITION

For the fourth time an international essay competition for young people has been organised by the Ecumenical Youth Commission, Geneva. The subject is 'Christ and World Friendship'. There are two classes, 14 to 18, and 18 to 22. The closing date is Christmas, 1940. For details, write to : The Rev. R. E. Burlingham, 20 Balcombe Street, Dorset Square, London, N.W.1, or The Ecumenical Youth Commission, 52 rue des Paquis, Geneva.

YOUNG REFUGEE—Shorthand Typist

Can anyone help a very capable young girl to find a post as shorthand typist—she has had training at a London secretarial bureau and practice in an office, and now needs a real job. Write to Miss Soper, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

VIENNESE ART TEACHER (Male)

needs a post for the summer term. Will later go to U.S.A.—painting, drawing, metalwork, pottery, sculpture, woodwork—was art teacher in one of Austria's best known state schools—has had some experience in an English school. Can also teach mathematics. Write to Miss Soper, as above.

cause of the education of young children in Australia and in England for more than 30 years.

Hence the book's convincing power, its directness, its freshness ; hence the reader's enchanted sense of 'This is a book on whose dicta I can rely, on whose advice I can lean'.

The philosophy of the book is set down fairly in its second paragraph. 'The chief business of the child is to grow and therefore this phenomenon is of prime importance to the teacher . . . Hers is a task of co-operation, for the function of education is to further growth. She is called upon to protect and

THE MARCH ISSUE OF 'THE NEW ERA'

is now available in pamphlet form
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CHILDREN IN WAR-TIME

with a Foreword by Lord De La Warr.

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encourage it in every way, so that children progress spontaneously and naturally towards the fullness of vigorous life.' Thenceforward, the chapters trace the course of this growth in considerable detail and suggest how the adult may best help. Physical growth is dealt with and what conduces to it, right food, sleep, open air, warmth, activity, and the like. A discussion on the development of intelligence includes a consideration of heredity, the effects of health on intelligence, education by play, the contribution of the senses, of the effect of experience and learning by living, the relationship of language and thought, and a fascinating glance at the building of vocabulary and the development of speech and verbal reasoning. The child's social adjustment is discussed, his impulse to worship considered in a sensitive chapter on religion in early childhood. An outstanding chapter in this section is that on the child's progress in emotional stability. To help the child to honesty of thought has long been accepted as a primary aim of education. The equally vital need to help the child to feel sincerely is insufficiently recognized. Miss de Lissa unequivocally states, 'It is far more necessary for the young child to form the habit of using and expressing his feelings in a balanced and appropriate way than to acquire intellectual knowledge or specific skill.'

To help a child to develop, wise teachers are needed and wise parents. Regarding teachers, Miss de Lissa emphasizes the need for careful training, since the teacher needs 'knowledge of the laws of growth and the way to collaborate with them, added to wisdom and spiritual understanding born of love.' As to parents, the value of close and friendly contact between home and school and of understanding and mutual respect between parents and teacher are stressed, and ways of achieving these ends suggested.

Several chapters deal in a way both practical and stimulating with the daily routine of a nursery school, with programmes, furniture, equipment, building and gardens. These chapters are a veritable mine of information and suggestion. There is a final historical chapter on pre-school education in England and in other lands, wherein Miss de Lissa exposes the danger of propaganda in education and urges the teachers of to-morrow 'to keep pre-school education untainted by political influence or any training that could fetter the mental and spiritual

growth of the child, and also to preserve and strengthen the religious basis on which all real education must rest.'

The book has a valuable appendix on the observation of young children. There is a bibliography and a useful list of story books, verse and music for little ones. There are eight charming plates of children's activities. Both front and back end-papers give plans of Nursery Schools. In the constructive introduction the author pleads for the wide establishment of nursery schools for children aged 2 to 5 or preferably 2 to 7. 'Given the good foundation to education that life in the nursery school ensures, children are not only prepared well for their subsequent schooling, but are enabled to get full value from it. What is more important, they experience a way of life that should help them to grow into healthy men and women of character, poise, and intelligence, of which our democracy has more urgent need than ever before in history.'

Miss de Lissa's treatment of her subject is amazingly comprehensive, one might say exhaustive. Her book is crammed full of information, suggestion, and wisdom. Yet it is refreshingly easy to read in virtue of its lucid and natural style, its sincerity, its humour and humanity. It will surely be not only an inspiration to the young teachers and students for whom it was written, but a delight to a much wider public amongst those interested in the education of children of any age.

Frances Consitt,
Chairman, Nursery School Association of
Great Britain and Ireland

The Strip Story Readers : About the Pig Family (3 books), About the Rabbit Family (3 books), About the Hen and Duck Families (3 books), About the Fox Family (3 books). (Cassell & Co., Ltd., 4d. each.)

The *Strip Story Readers* make a novel and intelligent bid to enlist the child's passion for 'comics' in his approach to reading. The stories are lively and interesting, and each page is headed by a strip cartoon. The books serve, therefore, a dual purpose — 'Look at the words and *read* the story. Look at the pictures and *tell* the story'.

There is a disadvantage in a book of only sixteen pages in that the very bright reader finishes the book very quickly; on the other hand I believe that for infants the joy of finishing a book and asking for more is not only a real delight but a distinct encouragement of the zest for reading.

But I am inclined to think that, generally, the vocabulary of the *Strip Story Readers* is rather difficult for children under seven years of age (e.g. such words as naughty, punished, exciting, handkerchiefs, regiment). Perhaps they would be most suitable as supplementary readers, three or four of each being made available to a class of 36. As 'circulation readers' for top class infants or lowest classes of Junior School the books should be both enjoyable and useful.

L. S.

Working-Class Wives : Their Health and Conditions. By Margery Spring Rice. (Pelican Books A60, 6d.)

This book is a description of the ordinary life and conditions of the working-class mother who does all the work in her own home and for her family. 1,250 housewives were questioned and wrote, for the most part in their own words and unaided, a description of their lives. Budgets and dietaries were often given and there are many moving accounts of psychological and physical difficulties.

In our opinion this book should be studied not only by every medical man and social worker in the country, but by every ordinary man and woman who has the welfare of his country at heart. It should be remembered that these mothers are a sample of that large section of the population who live in conditions of the greatest difficulty. Even with good health the task of the working mother with three or four children is a titanic one. The tragedy lies in the inability of any but the very strong to keep level with the demand upon her strength, and the consequent inevitable downsliding into physical and mental suffering. This affects not only the happiness and health of the mother herself, but that of her whole family, and through the family the welfare of the nation. In particular every woman should give serious thought to these conditions amongst others of her own sex.

Letters to the Editor

MADAM,

We do not think it is generally known that there are still 470 Basque children in England who cannot go back to Spain for the present, as their parents are either in prison or refugees in France.

In a few months' time the situation will no doubt be greatly eased, because about a hundred of the big boys who have started work should by then have become self-supporting. There still remains, however, the question of the young ones, most of whom we are trying to place in private homes. We aim at :

(1) Getting together groups of people to guarantee 10/- a week to support a child.

(2) Collecting boys' clothing and shoes.

(3) Organizing concerts by the children. We have a very good group of children for this.

Further information can be obtained from The Secretary, Basque Children's Committee, 20 Eccleston Street, S.W.1.

MADAM,

Has anyone in your columns ever questioned the value or otherwise of shorts as the normal everyday wear in a boys' school? Obviously, for sports purposes, there is no question about it, but in recent years I have sometimes wondered myself whether they are as good as they are popularly supposed to be. I imagine that many schools are in the position of this one. For many years the boys here have

worn grey shorts mainly for reasons of health, but partly too, I think, because certainly in the lower half of the school the long trouser on the legs of a young person does get baggy and ill favoured in an incredible short time. But is this health reason as real as we have in the past believed? I do not know and would consequently much value discussion on the point. After all, we cover our ankles, hips, elbows, and the majority of people cover the base of the neck. Why expose the knee? My experience is that most of my boys, even quite small ones, wear long trousers during the holidays (incidentally I am told that it is increasingly difficult to obtain ready-made shorts except for quite small boys) and I have sometimes wondered whether the crop of colds which we get at the beginning of the Easter Term and sometimes at the beginning of the Summer Term, is not at any rate increased by the change-over from longs to shorts at the beginning of term.

D. W. Lee Browne,

Headmaster, Rendcomb College, Cirencester.

The Unevacuated Child

... Much has been written on the problem of the evacuated child, but there seems to be less personal interest in the children who have remained in the evacuation areas since the beginning of war. They are worthy of interest, not only because they have experienced, like the evacuees, an upheaval which has brought to light various educational and psychological problems, but also because the greater number of children were not evacuated from most of the danger areas. It is a matter worthy of consideration whether the sense of security of these left-behinds has not suffered as much and possibly more than that of the evacuated children. At the time when parents were filling in forms of agreement or otherwise during the crisis of 1939, the child who came to school saying excitedly, yet with foreboding, 'My Mother's goin' to send me to the country', was not more interesting than the one who said proudly, yet with some misgiving : 'My Mother isn't going to let me go'. There followed the inevitable argument : 'If you don't go my Dad says you'll be killed'. 'You won't. My Dad says no 'arm won't come to us 'ere.' 'Well, wot they sendin' us away for if no 'arm won't come to us?' And then : 'My Dad says if we're goin' to be killed, best all be killed together'. The children who went away and endured the mental shock of separation from home and introduction to new and strange conditions were not more shaken in their security than those whose parents preferred, apparently, that they should 'all be killed together'. Much is written about those children who felt, unconsciously, that being sent away from home was a punishment for wickedness. Is it not more than possible that many of those left behind felt, unconsciously, that their lives were of little importance to anybody?

It is curious that so little thought should have been spared for these children. The possible explanation is that they were, for so long, nobody's business . . .

E. P. Friend

Directory of Schools—continued

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH

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THE NEW ERA IN HOME AND SCHOOL

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Education after the War

Marjorie Reeves

Tutor in History, Society of
Oxford Home Students

TS. ELLIOTT has recently said : 'Education is social philosophy in action'. Every educational decision, whether in the class-room or in administration, embodies values which are held either by the individual or by society as a whole. Such values may be held consciously or unconsciously, but some judgment as to relative values is inextricably bound up with every concrete educational decision or attitude. In passing, we may notice that this disposes of the so-called 'liberal' notion that education can be the free, untrammelled, uninfluenced development of the child. The 'liberal' or 'individualistic' phase of education was as much based on an accepted social pattern and values as any openly authoritarian system. Children can only grow to maturity under the influence of secure personal relationships, within a community which has its own scale of values. Even knowledge is not impersonal or objective, for it must always be *someone's* knowledge, or at least *someone's* selection of fact. Both as individuals and as a community we must influence our children, and we should do so : the real point of test lies in the intention of the teacher or of the society. It is therefore of vital importance that we should know our own values truthfully and apply them to education with integrity.

ONE of the first questions, therefore, which we have to ask ourselves is : what are the values at present expressed in our educational administration

and practice ? This is a study in itself, and I only want here to suggest two illustrations of what seem to me to be determining values in English education to-day. The first is the motive of a competitive commercialism which shows itself in the common ambition of parent, teacher and child that the pupil shall 'get on'. To such, education appears as the acquisition of just that amount of skill or information which serves as a key to open the next educational gate, leading to schooling of better prestige and ultimately to jobs of superior status and better conditions. Since, under the present scale of values, intellectual are 'better' than manual jobs, the driving purpose in the schools is to enable as many as possible to escape from the ranks of manual workers and become black-coated or professionals. Thus there is a premium on verbal education, and children are pushed on to masquerade as someone other than themselves, usually someone more intellectual or further removed from the handling of the concrete. The fact that we cannot have a whole society of clerks, managers and professionals adds the driving force of competition to the ambition to climb. If true culture involves the assimilation of knowledge which has deep personal significance, then surely the whole idea of culture is vitiated by this desire to get goods with a market value through education.

My second illustration lies in the application of standards of mass production to education. It seems

to me that unconsciously educational questions are being tackled in the spirit of factory production problems. The first consideration and the major expenditure is on the provision of buildings thoroughly efficient and well-equipped for the manufacture of children; thus the major expenditure in education would seem to be on 'plant'. It follows easily that one should assemble the largest possible number of children to be manufactured in one factory, because this is the economic justification of expenditure on the most up-to-date plant. Finally, there follows insistence on the finest possible grading—into A, B, C, and D streams if necessary—because the criterion of factory efficiency demands that as near as possible an identical process should be applicable to all the children in one workshop. Educational efficiency is conceived in terms of the maximum production of articles to the minimum of skilled teacher-labour. It should be emphasised that educational policy as expressed in expenditure embodies, not the values of individual administrators, but of society as a whole. Clearly, emphasis on good 'plant', large schools, units of over 40 to a teacher, and ultra-efficient grading suggest the values of a mass-producing society.

TURNING now to the values which are to be embodied in our new educational order, it is obvious that a great deal needs thinking out here. Two considerations of value, however, seem to me already to be clear. One is that the purpose of our education must be the growth of persons, and, since persons grow through relationships, this means the growth of persons in community.¹

The second consideration is that in all our educational schemes we must be concerned with the child *as a whole person*. We must not allow ourselves, for efficiency's sake, to departmentalize him and to concentrate on an aspect or a fragment of a person. Education involves the whole process of living during twenty-four hours of the day—play, rest, sleep, as much as 'work'. All our schemes must be based upon a recognition of this essential wholeness. This is, of course, one of the great lessons of evacuation. Teachers who confined themselves to the 'school' aspect of a child suddenly found themselves dealing with a person, with a complete emotional history, with a need for social training rather than school subjects, and demanding, above all, personal relationships.

An important consequence of this last point is that education is no longer solely the concern of professional educationists but of everyone whose influence impinges anywhere on the life of the child, i.e. the parent, club-leader, medical officer, clergyman, Sunday School teacher, librarian, cinema manager, employer of juvenile labour, etc. In the

public interest aroused by problems of evacuation we have the beginnings of a recognition that education is everybody's concern. This interest needs to be caught and harnessed at once, in order that we may take education outside the professional associations and get the driving force of a general interest behind the campaign for advance. Therefore, as a first move of strategy towards the education we want after the war, I should like to see groups of people, as diverse as possible in character, organised by localities to study the total life of their children and to work out educational values as applied to the concrete local situation. Such a 'council for child study' could easily be organised taking the parish, the district or the school as a unit; its essential work—the study of *all* factors affecting its group of children—would supply it with a body of data and a viewpoint both unique in their completeness, for no one education department at present concerns itself with a total view. The churches should be deeply involved in all this. Christian standards, applied to education, should mean a very specific drive for certain reforms, and an important strategic consideration at the moment is how to mobilise religious forces for the educational drive.

We have now to consider our reconstruction of education in more specific terms. I want, therefore, to present a programme of rather ill-assorted points, some fairly concrete, others in the nature of principles, of which the applications are not yet clear.

I. REDUCTION IN THE SIZE OF ALL LARGE CLASSES to at most 30, with the ultimate object of making the normal school group between 15 and 25. I believe this would achieve more than any other single point of reform, and more than any other it would symbolise a change of values from those of a mass-producing society to those of a true society seeking to bring up persons. We could have done it long ago if public opinion had been convinced of its fundamental importance, and we need now to campaign for this on the level of the values it involves. *Large classes will not do for the kind of society we want.* The mass of over 40 children must always be depersonalised in some degree, if only because it must be subject to such mechanical devices as moving by rows and holding up the hand to speak. The best teachers by a magnificent effort manage to treat all the 40 as persons sometimes, but surely not always, and how can the children be related to *each other* as persons? The true life of the classroom community involves free movement, co-operative enterprise, the real inter-play persons and the full acceptance of the limitations imposed upon your own claim for 'space' by someone else's. How can this be when the child is chiefly aware of his fellows as 40 or so rivals for the teacher's attention? Above all, the strain of managing 40 is an intolerable burden on the teacher, forcing him in sheer self-defence to adopt impersonal methods, lest he break down. One becomes an altogether different being with 40 from what one is with 20 children, and many mechanical teachers are made so by the pressure of numbers.

¹ The word 'person' must be taken here as embracing such ideas as integrity of experience, inviolability, that 'otherness' which is the ultimate personal quality. 'Community' implies that security which leads to freedom, that pattern of stable relationships which gives the individual the sense of being 'at home in the Universe'. Each of these is necessary to the other, yet the tension between them must always be kept.

There are great possibilities for securing conviction on this point now. Many teachers who had perfected the mechanical method to the point of being content with it have found themselves enjoying, through evacuation, the new experience of relationships in small groups. They have been impressed with the greater rate of progress—an argument which could be used with great effect to convince the general public. The evidence on the value of small groups during evacuation needs to be collected and utilised now, while it is fresh in the mind. Whatever arguments are used, let us remember that behind the drive for smaller classes lies the idea of the class-room community, where the growth of persons is more important than the acquisition of information, and the limitations imposed by the 'otherness' of other persons are experienced and accepted, rather than enforced by external obedience.

A corollary of all this is that we should revise our views on grading. If growing-up means learning to live in a community of older, younger and contemporaries, then school classes, reduced in size, ought at least to give a more varied social experience than the association of like with like—especially since families tend to be so small. Barring units for learning techniques (e.g. reading, arithmetic, foreign languages) groupings could be much more varied and flexible, especially for such co-operative enterprises as producing a play, or making a local survey.

2. THE PROVISION OF NURSERY SCHOOLS ON A NATIONAL SCALE. Again, the driving-force of a conviction as to values is needed here—the importance of treating children in wholeness and of bringing them up in community, the necessity of satisfying each phase of experience and of providing a pattern of stable relationships, the value of purposeful activity and social training. Harmony between home and school is, of course, a vital factor, but there is no essential antithesis between a home and a nursery-school upbringing.

3. WE MUST MAKE THE TEST OF ALL CURRICULA IN THE SCHOOLS, RELEVANCE TO THE CHILD AT HIS PARTICULAR STAGE; that is, we must banish this commercial notion that the child learns what will best help him to get on in the later stages of his career. No child should be starved at one stage in order to prepare him for the next, since the most adequate preparation for the next is always to live most fully now. We must see that every child enjoys rich and satisfying experience, embracing such varied activities as exploring, understanding, enjoying sensation and movement, handling materials and creating. We must free him from the cage of a purely verbal education. Above all, we must see that everything he learns and does is given personal relevance, that it becomes an integral part of his experience, understood emotionally as well as intellectually. This obviously implies a completely different attitude towards the examination system from the present commercial one. I want here simply to relegate examinations to the subordinate position they should occupy as a useful form of test

for certain skills. Clearly the examination system to-day arises from our social system, and until the balance between intellectual and manual workers is redressed we shall continue to put a false value on intellectual achievement. Educationally speaking, however, we must aim at reducing examinations, as far as possible, to internal, non-competitive tests applicable to certain types of intelligence and achievement only. The real purpose of education—that of getting understanding—can never be measured by them.

4. WE NEED A THOROUGH-GOING RETHINKING OF THE PURPOSES OF POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION FOR ALL, AND, IN PARTICULAR, OF THE PART PLAYED BY VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THIS PHASE. In terms of practical reforms, of course, we have to work for the raising of the leaving age to 16 at least, educational care of some sort for all up to 18, parity of status for all post-primary schools (i.e. Senior, Central, Technical, Secondary, etc.), interchange of teaching staffs from one type to another, and a flexible non-competitive system for the transfer of pupils. But none of these reforms will be of any use unless we eradicate the notion that one type of education is 'better' than another and build our schooling on different social values. We are wont to ask the question: what is post-primary education for—the acquisition of general culture or technical usefulness? But there is a false antithesis here which weakens our whole conception of post-primary education, and which even the Spens Report does not entirely avoid. Historically, what we now call 'general' education was the technical education of the ruling classes, and, in fact, all post-primary education must be technical or vocational.

If we start from a different angle—that of the making of persons—it is clear that training for a job can have real significance. One of the main interests of the adolescent is the real world with the real jobs to be done in it; therefore his education should centre in the conception of training for a useful function with the idea of service rooted in it. Curricula, except for the small percentage of academically-minded, should centre in the functions of the locality or in selected 'trades', in the historical, geographical and technical implications of these. The main purpose should be that the individual accepts the idea of a function and studies its implications and significances in ever-widening circles which ultimately link him with the whole world. Vocational education should thus broaden out into a culture which is all the more true because it starts with the personally significant. This idea obviously has a rather different application in the case of those fitted by aptitude for the function of handling abstract ideas and symbols, that is, the scholars and academic thinkers. But the boy who masters the technique of a language in a 'grammar' school and grasps its significance for civilization need not be 'better educated' than the boy in a 'technical' school who has mastered clay and followed out its widest implications for mankind, whilst both need the same ideal of vocation. We have to achieve a

conception of culture which transcends the damaging antithesis between general and technical education.

Such a reorientation towards vocation will not be for utilitarian purposes. Educationally speaking, a job exists for the person, not the person for the job, and in our new society the provision of technicians must be a by-product of the growth of persons. The birthright of everyone ought to be the responsibility of performing a function with full knowledge of its social significance. Obviously, social change is needed to make some functions fit for men, but we could at once make many more manual functions significant to the young worker if we made them the point from which his post-primary education set out. Schools would need close contact with factory, farm, business, etc., whilst 'real' workers should play their part in school, teaching techniques and discussing problems. For the last years, perhaps 15-18, an 'educational apprenticeship' is needed in which education is continued partly in the workshop, partly in the school, in varying proportions of time. The manager or foreman would be joint-educator with the schoolmaster, and must obviously have an educational viewpoint. Such an apprenticeship would need to be state-subsidised since it would exist, not for greater economic efficiency but for the making of persons. At the same time there should be great opportunities for changing careers and for late training, especially in the universities.

5. WE MUST OBLITERATE THE UNREAL DISTINCTION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND NOT-SCHOOL, AND ACHIEVE HARMONY BETWEEN THEM. Evacuation has emancipated education from the four walls of the class-room and we must not go back to them. Home and School must be harmonized in a community of purpose and activity which goes deeper than a formal Parent-Teacher Association. School ought to be the centre of education for *families*, with fathers and mothers moving freely in and out of it, contributing to the actual teaching (e.g. on their own jobs) or to the school activities, and in the evening holding classes and clubs for their own education. Then the school must be embedded in the local community. The daily process of education has to be one in which data is collected at will from books and from the local environment, and movement from one realm to the other is free and natural, rather than an occasion for a special expedition. To grow into the local community by understanding it is a basic experience, and all larger loyalties should grow out of it. I believe that regional survey, or the study of the local community—why it sprang up just here, how it has grown, solved governmental problems, made mistakes, how it should plan for the future—can embody, almost more than any other method, the new social values we are trying to express. For the patriotism we seek is that of a critical loyalty in which the sense of 'belonging' goes with an understanding of good and bad, of the ordinary as well as the extraordinary, of things still

to do as well as things achieved. Lastly, the local community must accept its educational function, and wipe out the gulf between itself and this queer teacher class it keeps so separate. Education must be rescued from professionalism; teachers must be citizens, and citizens must recognise that they are all educators.

6. WE NEED A THOROUGHLY THOUGHT-OUT POLICY FOR LEISURE TIME ACTIVITIES FOR ALL UP TO 18. The process of growth in out-of-school hours is of equal importance educationally with that in school. Thus we must plan so that all urban children, at least, have opportunity provided for creative activity; we must provide *opportunity*, but without either coercion or over-organization. I should like to see every urban authority, and some rural, working out a comprehensive scheme for small leisure-time groups (20 to 30 in number), staffed by all kinds of people. Organised physical activities would have their place, but probably a smaller one than heretofore, whilst the 'play centre' method, i.e. the provision of the raw materials for free play and creative construction, might be adapted to all ages. Again, the value to be stressed is a personal value: to be absorbed in the conquest of your chosen raw material or in construction of your own conceiving, to play in a rhythm of concentration and relaxation, to move in and out of spontaneous groupings—all this is as much a part of education as the school process. One thing needs watching: we have so far left organization for leisure-time mostly in voluntary hands; if we now need a more comprehensive planning by public authorities—and the Board of Education circular 1486 suggesting the establishment of Youth Committees shows some realization of this—we must be careful that such planning embodies right values, that it is concerned with the full growth of persons, not with the production of a convenient type.

7. WE MUST SEE THAT ALL CHILDREN GET SOME RURAL EXPERIENCE. For long many of us in London have known that children were losing a priceless quality in their experience because they had lost the country. Evacuation has shown over and over again that this quality can and must be recovered, and that it is worth more than many school books. It is ultimately the spiritual quality derived from the experience of learning to love and understand that which man can never make nor wholly control. We must therefore see to it that, whether in camps or no, all town children get one or two months in the country each year.

I have tried to outline some possible future developments very shortly. All these points need much close work upon them and drastic modification, but what I would stress here is not so much my own detailed applications, as the necessity of addressing ourselves first to the task of defining what are the social values we desire to express in our new education.

La Classe d'Orientation

W. G. Bowman

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IN a previous article¹ on the *École Unique* and recent reforms in French education I outlined the conception of the *Classe d'Orientation* and the role assigned to it in the education and vocational guidance of the child. For three years now *classes d'orientation* have been operating in various centres. As yet they are only experiments, conducted with a comparatively small number of children. This year, because of the disorganization of staffs and pupils, many centres have had to close down. In some centres such as Reims and Nantes the experiments have failed for various reasons, inadequacy of materials and organization, the disapproval and opposition of teachers, especially men teachers in secondary schools. But there remains a core of enthusiasm and of success, which only awaits better days to be extended to the whole country. One of these successful centres is the Lycée de Jeunes Filles at Sèvres, in the Académie de Paris. Here a group of enthusiasts directed by Mademoiselle Guenod, editor of *La Revue de l'Enseignement Secondaire des Jeunes Filles*, are convinced of the value of the *classe d'orientation*, and point with pride to their work. In the words of Monsieur Monod, Inspecteur Général de l'Académie de Paris, the experiment is conducted here *avec amour*. I have been given every facility for studying this centre, for which I should like to acknowledge my indebtedness.

During the summer of 1937 the Ministry of Education issued a series of circulars establishing roughly the lines on which the experiment was to be started at the beginning of the new session.

Teachers were to be drawn from all sections of National Education, elementary and technical as well as secondary, and could be expected to teach more than one subject. This step, breaking with the intense specialization of secondary school teachers, was taken to ensure a small number of teachers for the *classe d'orientation*—five or six at the most. In this

way close collaboration can be ensured between them, and the syllabus can be planned out for the year, the month, the week, so as to ensure that it should be presented as a whole, not as a series of subjects independent one of another. The children were to be helped to the realization that life is a vast field of related experience, and not a number of problems more or less isolated from each other. Teachers were to meet once a week to discuss the work done and results achieved ; to pool their indications as to the character and aptitudes of each child ; to decide in common the advice to be given to parents as to his future course ; to determine the programme of the coming week.

The *classe d'orientation* would contain all the pupils capable of benefiting from secondary education. Each class was limited to twenty-five pupils, of between the ages of 11-12, with latitude at the discretion of the teacher. School hours were fixed at six a day. The school week was arranged as follows :

Ten hours for literary studies (French, Latin, modern languages, geography, and history) ; seven hours for scientific studies (arithmetic and initiation into the observational sciences) ; two hours for art ; five hours for handicrafts (this included one hour geometrical drawing, domestic science for girls) ; two and a half hours of physical training (given in periods of half an hour or less) ; half-an-hour for music.

Thursday and Saturday afternoons were set aside for organized leisure, geographical excursions around the district, walks in search of botanical specimens, visits and other activities. Participation in these was to be voluntary.

An important point to notice in this timetable is the comparatively large amount of time devoted to art and manual work. These activities are usually neglected in Lycées. But apart from their value, their great utility in revealing aptitudes and inclinations was too obvious to be ignored.

Homework was abolished in the *classe d'orientation*. No work was to be given outside

¹ *New Era*, April 1940.

school hours. This measure raised a storm of misgivings and protests from parents and teachers ; more so than similar steps taken in England a short time ago, because the majority of French teachers lecture in class and rely upon homework to accomplish the rest. The abolition of homework meant the giving up of the lecture habit in the *classe d'orientation* in favour of an active form of teaching. Exercises and applications had to be done in class, not at home. At Sèvres there is a private study period, for exercises normally done at home, during the ninety minutes that follow the end of afternoon school. Thus teachers are able to observe the manner in which the children work by themselves and can endeavour to inculcate sound methods of work. This observation is also useful from the psychological point of view.

At 5.30 the children are finished for the day and go home. This system has won favour with parents, despite initial protests ; it was said parents would no longer be able to control the work of their children and help them if need be. It was pointed out that the children could at any time take their books home for inspection. Teachers were always ready to give information to parents, and as for help given by parents to their children, the practice was rather to be deplored than encouraged.

It would take too long to give in detail the syllabi drawn up by the Ministry for each subject, but there follow some details on the history, geography, and science syllabi. Later we shall see how they were applied at Sèvres.

HISTORY

General notions about chronology ; generations, centuries, eras ; the historic period and the pre-historic period. The immensity and obscurity of the prehistoric period. The various types of pre-historic man.

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Greek genius, the Periclean Age. Artistic and literary achievements.

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The way in which a little Italian city, Rome, became the greatest power in the Ancient World.

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The crises of the Republic. The Graeci, Marius, Sylla, Cicero, Cæsar. Augustus and the foundation of the Empire. The great Emperors. Roman civilization under the Emperors. The end of the Ancient World. Christianity and Barbarism.

GEOGRAPHY

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(c) Climate.

(d) Hydrography : fresh water, rivers, lakes, glaciers ; sea water, oceans, tides, sea-shores.

2. *Life on the earth's surface*

(a) Vegetation, animals ; connection with physical geography. The chief zones of the Earth.

(b) Man.

i. A study of the region. Ways of life, population, dwellings.

ii. Man in the Universe. Elementary notions about race, population density ; chief populated zones of the world.

3. Principal explorations of the continents and the Poles.

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Elementary facts about the chief vertebrates.

Elementary facts about the common flowers.

It is easy to visualize the scope provided by these syllabi for co-ordination of instruction. The history of the Ancient World provides a centre of interest around which the other subjects can be grouped. The Ancient World constitutes a whole and the children can have the sense of studying a complete manifestation of the human spirit from many different angles. Geography explains many things which would otherwise be obscure ; the practical applications learnt in science provide them with an instrument whose use they immediately test.

How are these syllabi applied ? The programme printed below is that in use at Sèvres this term. Every term a similar programme of work is drawn up by the teachers in collaboration. The study of Roman civilization is co-ordinated with that of the Mediterranean Basin. History, Latin, and English are very closely related.

HISTORY	FRENCH COMPOSITION	LATIN	ENGLISH	GEOGRAPHY	SCIENCE	ART	GEOMETRICAL DRAWING	FREE STUDY
The Origins of Rome.	Collective preparation in class of a story 'Lise and Noel search for Korola, the Marvellous Bird'. The writing of Chapter I. Free study.	Peasant. Shepherd. Craftsman.	Britain and the Britons. Julius Caesar invaded Britain in 55 B.C.	The Sea.	Fish.	Fish.	Inscriptions.	Plan of Rome enlarged to wall map size. Italy idem.
The Roman Army.	Lise and Noel visit Ancient Rome. Individual composition after collective documentation. Correction in class.	The Camp. The Battle. The Triumph.	How the Britons managed to frighten the Roman Legions. (Woad, etc.)	The Sea.	Creation of an Aquarium.	Patterns constructed from motifs taken from the sea.	Study of Mosaic.	Plan of a camp. Reconstruction of a part of the wall.
The Great Conquests.	Lise and Noel travel in the Mediterranean. The Islands.	Navigation.	Britain became a Roman Province in A.D. 85. The occupation lasted four centuries. In 410 the Roman Legions had to leave the country.	The Mediterranean Basin. Navigation on the Mediterranean.	Maritime discoveries during Antiquity.	Modelling of the various types of boats which used to sail the Mediterranean.	Study of Mosaics.	Wall size map of the Mediterranean Basin.
Changes resulting from the Great Conquests.	Return to Rome. Lise and Noel hunt for Korola in a house, in a shop.	Dwellings. Birth. Marriage. Funeral. Ceremonial.	Ruins of walls and roads (Hadrian's Wall). 1. Names of towns ending in -cester, -chester, -caster. 2. In -col, -coln. 3. In -pool (Paludis). 4. Bath.	Life in the Mediterranean Region.	1. Tulip. 2. Narcissus 3. Wheat. 4. Olive. 5. Vine.	Plants studied.	Plan of a Roman house	Construction 1. A Roman shop. 2. A Roman house.

Special reading texts for English and Latin are prepared by the mistresses concerned. Very little help can be obtained from the text-books existing in France. The children practically from the beginning use their English and Latin as an 'instrument de travail'. The children can more easily see the sense of language study.

Science and geography constitute a second group closely co-ordinated; at the same time it completes the first group. Notice how the study of the Great Conquests is related to navigation on the Mediterranean. Art, geometrical drawing, and free study find inspiration either from sea life or from life in Rome. Finally French is used to bind the whole together. The story of Lise and Noel calls for an imaginative appreciation of what is being studied in other classes. When it is finished it will contain the idea that the class has of Roman civilization and life in the Mediterranean. It is at once a creative exercise and a useful check up.

At the end of the year the child is ready to pass without difficulty into the next form and to follow one of the normal courses of French education. But which course shall he follow? This is the problem that the class is principally designed to solve. Orientation, the revelation of aptitudes or the lack of aptitudes, the development of tastes, and their revelation both *to the child* and to the teachers; these are the things that are aimed at. In short, the year is a long psychological test. The child is surrounded by a large number of activities, academic, artistic, and technical (crafts). The results of these activities, the fashion in which the child reacts to them, the method in which he works, and in which he plays, furnish the teachers

with indications which permit an understanding of his character and the equipment given him by nature. The profile so built up will go a long way in determining the course of the future education of the child. Other considerations, such as the background of the child, the state of the various professions and careers, whether they are overcrowded or not, will also play their part. The sum of these indications is submitted to the parents, together with the advice of the school, advice arrived at by the collaboration of all the teachers of the *classe d'orientation*.

The method adopted at Sèvres is to build up during the year a dossier for each child. The corrected exercises with suitable notes as to the psychological tendencies revealed (memory accuracy, power of abstraction, imagination, etc.) here find their place, together with additional notes, the results of the medical examination and the results of the interviews with the parents. A report both of an academic and a psychological nature is submitted to the parents each term; at the end of the year the report contains the line of future study suggested for the child. As close a contact with the parents as possible is maintained all through the year, both by private interviews and periodical meetings for a common exchange of views between parents and teachers.

There has been a deal of discussion among teachers and others as to which subjects were most likely to reveal character. Each teacher supported his own subject, and the final decision seems to be that each subject provides valuable indications. Here is an example provided by Mlle Farenc, English mistress in the *classe d'orientation* at Sèvres. She set the following exercise:

1. Draw the object suggested by the following composite nouns: a hair-pin, eye-glass, a book-shelf, a motor-cycle.
2. Give the French equivalent of: a fruit-tree, an apricot-tart, a kitchen-garden, a rose-tree, a rose-leaf.

Her report on the exercise is as follows:

These composite nouns have never been met with, but their elements are known and can be readily identified. The formation of compound nouns in English was studied in liaison with the French mistress, who dealt with compound

nouns in French at the same time. Hence frequent comparisons were made possible. The exercise demands the strict application of the rule (attention) of vocabulary (memory), and a certain imagination. The results are satisfactory on the whole, the translations by drawing being very much better than the verbal translations.

Exercises in mathematics help to reveal those children who are capable of applying laws to problems of an unexpected nature, and who therefore show a certain power of abstraction. Art and crafts reveal those who are more especially gifted for an artistic or technical career. The manner in which the children work is also important; the child who shows a disinterested love of study is more marked out for a long scholastic career and the hard study that it involves than a child who only works because he has to and whose real interests are elsewhere. In these and other ways a decision is reached about each child.

Some who show high intelligence together with a love of learning and a facility in the use of language are advised to enter the A course, which is classical and philosophical and is the traditional classical-literary culture of France. Others who show more ability and interest in the practical application of knowledge and are equipped with the necessary powers of intelligence and observation and accuracy, are directed towards the B course which is biased towards science and mathematics, slightly so in the first years, but gradually increasing, until after the first part of the *baccalauréat* at the age of seventeen it becomes very specialized. At Sèvres, owing to the lack of technical schools, those who show technical abilities, skill with tools, etc., are also directed into this B course.

With some children orientation presents little difficulty. They are the brilliant children, the specially gifted whose course is plainly indicated. At the other end of the scale are those whose intellectual equipment is plainly unsuited for a secondary course and higher study. These are directed to the *Enseignement Primaire Supérieur*, a short course to the age of sixteen, which equips them for various vocations in industry, in commerce, etc. There remain a good number who are good average pupils and for whom it is difficult to decide between A and

B for example. Here orientation is more delicate, and the state of the various future professions is taken into consideration. For one of the evils that the *classe d'orientation* hopes to cure is that of the intellectually unemployed—an ill that threatens other countries besides France. Some professions such as teaching and the law are full to overflowing, and yet an ever-increasing stream of young people are preparing to enter them. Where a child is not especially marked out for these careers, or shows no particular interest in them, it is better for him and for society that he be directed elsewhere. The *classe d'orientation* hopes to be able to do much in this way, but it can only do so in so far as parents will accept the carefully documented advice that is given.

The *classe d'orientation* means a lot of work for

the teachers. Cynics criticize and ask whether the result is much different from that obtained by the old method, or lack of method. To which M. Monod, and others reply that orientation has, of course, always been the preoccupation of teachers. But it has been haphazard, ill-informed, and often off-hand. The orientation provided by the *classe d'orientation* is based on a year's special study of the child, and on a sound detailed knowledge of the future possibilities open to it in society. Even if the result were much the same, which is by no means proven, it is obtained more surely. Furthermore, by means of this class in the future it may be hoped to direct the children more wisely towards the various functions needed by society, to the better advantage of both the child and the community.

Psychological Considerations in the Teaching of Handwriting¹

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THERE is probably no school subject that receives such varying treatment in different schools by different teachers as does handwriting. Some teachers consider handwriting as an attribute of character, believing at the same time that the subject is closely related to general intelligence and to scholastic ability. Hence they make pedantic endeavours in all their school teaching 'to get the child to write well'. In every lesson the unfortunate pupils are warned to write neatly and carefully, while in not a few subjects marks are added or deducted for good or bad handwriting respectively. This attitude is characteristic of teachers whose first remark about a page of English composition is 'How nicely it is written!' Under such an unhealthy influence handwriting relinquishes its true place as a means and becomes an end, and this, in some pupils, creates a minor form of neurosis, stunting and inhibiting the imaginative aspects

of activities in which writing should be merely a tool.

Other teachers take almost the opposite view. For them handwriting is unimportant; they don't bother to give their pupils regular lessons in writing and they tend to regard it as an individual characteristic which a child develops irrespective of the school system.

In addition to the school's attitude towards writing, there is that of the general public. The uneducated man is inclined to regard good writing as a sign of intelligence or scholarship (exceptions are allowed in the case of doctors). Business men look most searchingly for 'a good commercial hand' in the boys and clerks whom they wish to employ in their offices or business houses, and annually there is an outcry against the low standard of writing in the schools of to-day.

What is the right attitude towards handwriting? Such a question can only be answered accurately by considering the psychological factors which enter into the purpose of, the teaching of, and the acquisition of skill in, handwriting. A modern teacher should know

¹ For previous articles in this series see 'Backward Readers' by F. J. Schonell, *New Era*, Dec., 1939; 'Number' and 'An Arithmetical Disability: Weakness in Problem Solving' by S. H. Cracknell, Jan. and Feb., 1940.

the main psychological considerations with respect to handwriting, its purpose, place, and function at different levels in pupil development.

Early Influences in Teaching Handwriting

From a psychological standpoint writing is an all-important activity in the early years. It provides a means of expression which is particularly attractive and singularly effective to the young child. Having passed the stage of seemingly senseless scribble most young pupils wish to write something. Usually they wish to translate into written form an essential name, idea, or function connected with some play activity.

Thus, Malcolm, aged 4, comes in from his sand pit and wants to know how to write 'fort', because he has just completed a grand fort in sand. He is shown how to write the word (in capital letters) and proudly carries off the piece of cardboard to place it on the finished product of his activity. To begin with, such young children are quite ignorant of the letters of the words they attempt to copy. Gradually, however, they assimilate the structure of certain letters from the various words they try to write. Hence Malcolm quickly learnt 'M', as it was the first letter in his name. 'E' was easy because it had 'three legs' and occurred in the name of his friend, PETER, while letters like S and O were learnt on account of their individual characteristics.

In time most of the letters are picked up in this interesting game of writing and this far more quickly, indirectly, and effectively than through a more formal approach. The learning of letters should come through the child's play, and should represent a clever way of naming, labelling, or telling what he has done in his drawing and his play.

It is obvious that this desire to write will be a powerful aid in learning to read. When the young pupil draws a ship or a house, an aerodrome or railway station, and he wants to say something about it, *there* is the natural starting point for reading. Thus he dictates,

A big ship

or

Here is a train,

and this is written on or alongside his drawing. He then traces over the writing, or at a later

stage attempts to copy the writing, and so we employ a most effective supplementary aid to remembering the visual and the auditory forms of words. Omit this added assistance from writing and tracing and we miss one of the strongest indirect aids in the teaching of reading.

What Kind of Writing?

Agreed as to the early value of writing in the child's verbal progress, we might well ask, 'What kind of writing should we teach?' My own experience is that in the very earliest stages of writing it is better to introduce children to capital letters. They can follow and more easily make the large strokes and curves of the capitals than they can the structure of the lower case letters. This approach gives them success and confidence and it can quickly give way to the use of small letters before the child has even learnt many of the capital letters. As to the type of small letter, evidence is greatly in favour of the use of script (from the original name, manuscript). Of recent years practically all teachers of pupils between the ages of 5+ and 7+ have changed from cursive writing, *i.e.* continuous, joined, loop writing—to print with necessary simplification of letters like 'a' and 'g'. This change, according to Dr. Ballard,¹ first came into London schools in 1914. Since then it has spread throughout Great Britain, was introduced into Boston and New York in 1920, and has been adopted in most schools of the Dominions.

There is little doubt that the change from cursive to script for beginners has been beneficial, and to have one form of lettering both for reading and for writing in the child's early schooling expedites progress in both subjects. Previous to the introduction of script writing, teachers found added initial difficulties in both subjects in trying to acquaint children with the differences that existed between cursive (used for writing) and print (used for reading). There is experimental evidence in favour of script as an aid in learning to read.² Furthermore,

¹ See P. B. Ballard, *The Changing School*, Chapter XIX, pages 280—296, for a short history of the introduction of script writing into schools in England.

² A. H. Long and W. C. Mayer, *Printing versus Cursive Writing in Reading Instruction*, J. of Ed. Research, XXIV, No. 5, 1931. Also T. G. Voorhis, *The Relative Merits of Cursive and Manuscript Writing*, Teachers' College Publications, Columbia University, 1931.

consideration of the type used in first reading books shows that, both in size and kind, the print which closely resembles script writing helps the eye movements and perception of the pupils. Thus Gill Sans type, 24 point, is the best in this respect :

e.g.

Jack is in the tree.

This is an example taken from the first book in a modern series¹ for teaching reading.

Mental Factors in Writing

Writing is but little related to general intelligence, quality less so than speed. The degree of co-ordination possessed by the child seems to be the most important factor in writing. The fact that a considerable co-ordination of visual and motor powers is demanded in writing should be foremost in the teacher's mind in his teaching and judgment of handwriting. What we want to avoid is any unhealthy or unnatural nervous strain associated with writing instruction. Hence the teaching of writing in the early stages should not be too analytic and it should be done in a fairly large hand with crayons or pencils. There is no need to expect children to write with pen before 8 years of age, and all pupils should be allowed to do their arithmetic in pencil up to the age of 10+. The demand to keep figures and setting-out neat, and to calculate, is sufficient without having to worry about the manipulation of a fine two-pointed instrument and a supply of ink. Furthermore, teachers and parents should remember that poor writing is not a sign of weak intelligence or bad scholarship and that temperamental as well as physical factors enter into its acquisition—example, practice, and an abundance of praise for their efforts are the best nutritives for poor writing. Fatigue is reached more quickly with pupils of 5+ to 7+ in cursive writing than in print, but with older pupils the reverse is the case.

The Change to Cursive Writing

Although there is general agreement in the

¹ Taken from the Introductory Book, *Happy Venture Readers*, F. J. Schonell and F. I. Serjeant. Oliver & Boyd Ltd., London and Edinburgh. 1939.

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use of print for early writing, no such unanimity exists on the question of the change to cursive. A few people contend that there is no need to change, most teachers change sometime in the junior school between the ages of 7+ and 11+, while some even delay the change until senior classes (ages 12, 13, or 14). What should be the general procedure? Firstly, I believe that there should be a change to cursive. There is evidence that from the age of 9-10 onwards cursive is quicker than script, while good cursive compares favourably in legibility with script. What is more, my own researches reveal that cursive leads to fluency and ease, is an aid to spelling in so far as it provides a block gestalt or pattern which has stronger kinæsthetic impressions for pupils in recalling the words than has the separate letter pattern of script. Finally, with backward readers and spellers, the use of cursive leads to a decrease in the confusion of letters such as b, d ; p, q ; etc.

The change to cursive should begin from about 8 years of age. Pupils should be given definite lessons in the transfer from script to cursive, but the change should be gradual. Each week they should have instruction in how to make the letters in cursive (or as the pupils call it 'real writing'), and gradually, as facility and confidence increases, they should be encouraged to make the change in their everyday work *individually*. While the instruction is continuing they can do their written English and other exercises in script and then change just when they feel they are ready.

There is support for allowing pupils to persist with script during their first year in the junior or preparatory class (7+ to 8+) on the grounds that they already have adjustments to

make in a new department. But if the instruction in cursive is carried out smoothly, sympathetically, and individually, no harm results. The change should not be left until later than 8+ to 9+, nor should it be left to chance. We already have amongst secondary school and university students a too high proportion of hybrid cursive styles due to lack of help in changing from script to cursive.

The best plan of change is to group the letters thus :

i, u, n, m, t, p.

o, c, e, a, d.

j, y, g, q.

l, b, h, k, f.

v, w, r, s, x, z.

and to give practice in specimen words or lines which show the formation of the particular letters and the joining with other letters. This aim is to help pupils to develop legibility, continuity, ease, and speed, with the opportunity, at a later stage, of forming an individual style provided no illegibility of spacing, slope, alignment, or size are introduced.

Joined Script

A praiseworthy attempt to combine the beauty and legibility of script with the fluency of cursive writing has been attempted by Miss Richardson. Starting from the child's love for cursive forms and patterned lines, she carefully develops through patterns and tracing a form of joined script in which there is continuity but complete absence of looped letters. The basis of the method together with associated artistic development from it are explained fully by the author.¹

Left-handed Writers

Finally, we may refer to the problem of left-handedness in writing. Briefly, my own experience leads to these conclusions. It is better if possible to encourage pupils to write with the right hand, but certain safeguards must be observed. Amongst left-handers there are a few whom we term congenital left-handers, who show a preference for the left hand, eye, and leg in many activities. This small percentage, whose preference can be determined

¹ Marion Richardson, *Writing and Writing Patterns*. Books of Writing, Copies I to V and Teacher's Book. University of London Press.

by tests (throwing, winding, catching, kicking, sighting, etc.), is best left as left-handed writers. The remaining left-handers, the majority, whose manual preference is entirely acquired, should be persuaded to do right-handed writing. Nervous or highly-strung children should be very carefully considered in the matter of change of handedness. The popular idea that left handers changed to right-handers may develop stammering has no foundation except in the case of a few nervous pupils who have been upset emotionally by the change. The emotional upset has led to inco-ordination of speech mechanisms. It is nothing intrinsic to the change, but to the manner of change, that has produced the maladjustment. Harsh words, punishment, or censure may cause this with a highly-strung pupil. It is better to change left-handed pupils early in their school career for the older a pupil becomes the less wise

is it to change him. It is helpful in changing pupils from left- to right-handers to encourage them to hold the edge of their pad, or an eraser, in their left hand ; this has the effect of resolving the unconscious desire to slip the pen or pencil back to the left hand again.

The left-handed pupil, though at a disadvantage, can write as well as the right-handed but he should be advised to turn his paper so that it slants from the upper left-hand corner of his desk to the lower right-hand corner. He should be given adequate praise and encouragement.

In conclusion, teachers and parents should remember that handwriting is a tool for expression, not an art ; all pupils should be taught cursive writing at 8+ onwards, and, though we should not expect perfection, we should always look for and find successes in each child's work.

Dramatization

Marjorie L. Hourd

AT the age of eight or nine the child has outgrown the stage of make-believe to a large extent, and the fairy tale gives place gradually to tales of daring and adventure. In fact, it is not until the child is able to project his personality upon that of a character in a story instead of identifying himself with it, in the sense in which every child under seven is Cinderella, that he is ready for what we call 'dramatization'. Before this time he should be engaged in dramatic play, and there should be little or no attempt to organize and plan dramatic work.

But in the ages between eight and eleven children are ready for the imaginative experience of finding out how other people think and feel ; and at the same time, unconsciously, they gain a firmer control and understanding of their own personalities. They are ready to explore the world of books fairly thoroughly, and they need a great deal of material. What stories should we put before them ? What is the child's attitude towards the people he finds there ? In what sense can the young child 'dramatize' them ?

It is a great pity at this age to give them too many domestic stories like *Little Women*, stories from Dickens, and so on. They are excellent books for them to read at leisure, to take down from the library shelves ; they are not the best choice for classroom study and for a basis to dramatization. Let us have, for this age, the great stories of Epic and Romance : King Arthur, Launcelot, Gawayne, St. George, Bevis of Hampton, Guy of Warwick, Havelock the Dane, Beowulf, Sigurd, Achilles, Odysseus. They are legion. Men and women who have dared and loved greatly ; who went through great trials and yet who were ultimately victorious. It is not the escape motive which leads children to these stories. To them it is reality. They feel themselves to be 'on top'. They have a great sense of power and possibility at this age, before the doubts of adolescence begin to wear it down. They have as it were reached one pinnacle of development, and they do not yet see the much higher peaks before them. What these men have done they feel they could do. To them they are great power signs and should sail across their

skies like 'huge cloudy symbols of a high romance'.

This is also a period when the love motives and idealizations of mediæval chivalry have power to soften and enrich the imagination of the child, whereas earlier they are not understood, and later they may become embarrassing. I have found that the situation between King Arthur, Launcelot and Guenevere is usually accepted without comment. But one year a child asked me directly :

'Did Guenevere love Launcelot?' I replied 'Yes'. She went on : 'But wasn't it wrong because Arthur was her husband?' I paused slightly to find a satisfactory answer, but as so often happens, another child gave it. 'She loved Arthur as well, Betty, only she loved him differently.' Betty was satisfied and so was I.

I very much doubt whether there is such a thing as literature for grown-ups and literature for children. Books like *The Wind in the Willows* and *Alice in Wonderland*, *Gulliver's Travels*, *Don Quixote* and *Pilgrim's Progress*, to mention only a few, have an appeal on both levels ; whilst stories as different as *Aucassin and Nicolette* and *King Lear*, which measure a great range of grown-up experience, can also capture a child's delight in the ludicrous, the ideal and the true. Much of this literature is haunted by meanings which escape the child, but if in teaching it we give some hint of this further reach, and at the same time charge it with a value immediately relevant to him, we shall then ensure his present enjoyment and lay a basis for appreciation later. By this I do not mean that any literature can be read by a child, or that all children's stories have a grown-up appeal. This would be nonsense. A child would be left right outside Goethe's *Faust*, for instance, and few grown-ups would re-read *The Water Babies*.

One fact certainly seems clear, that most of the pretty-pretty flimsy phantasies often written for the child do not meet his psychological needs, though they may amuse him for a time. The rawness of the old stories and most ballad literature is something he can enjoy on a deeper level. This is a time in the mental development of a child when he needs strong food to digest ; when the sickly presentations of fairies with gauzy wings, which he knows do not lurk at

the bottom of his garden, are an insult to the vitality and power of his imagination.

It is not sufficiently understood how far children between 10 and 11 have gained an insight into the motive force of character. To take the measure of this is very important in dramatic work. It is always a good thing before a story is dramatized to discuss the characters freely, and for the children to give their spontaneous reactions to these people whom, after all, they have met for the first time, whereas our judgments are frequently stale with over familiarity. During a discussion of the characters of *The Iliad*, I received the following analysis of the character of Achilles from a child of 10 years 8 months. It was given orally in jerky sentences, with pauses between for thought and with comments now and again from the class. I wrote down what she had said from memory, with the help of a few hasty notes, when the lesson was over.

'I like Achilles best. He is different to-day from yesterday. I imagine he was tall and very strong with black curly hair and his face laughing and ever so nice one minute, and then not a bit nice, all scowly. I think he was spoiled. His mother spoiled him. She was always afraid of course that he would get wounded in the heel. You can understand it, still she shouldn't have done it so much. It made him so that he always ran to his mother after a battle or anything even when he was a great warrior. And then it was very babyish of him to sulk in his tent—and he really didn't love Patroclus right. He loved him too much really, because when he was killed he didn't know what to do. He was so upset. He couldn't believe it, so he just rushed into the battle-field and struck out at everybody. He wanted to hurt anybody who came near him, but it was death really and he just would not understand that.'

After the oral discussion in class, I asked the children to write about the character they would like to be when parts of the story were dramatized. Elizabeth had said all she wanted to say and the homework bored her. She gave a few details about Achilles and added : 'He thought very well of his father's spear ; that is why he used it when he was angry.'

Here are extracts from three of the written answers :

Patricia, 11 yrs. 10 mths.

'I should like to be Priam because when he talked to Helen he did not take sides like saying

"My armies are better than the Greeks. We are sure to win." He praised up the armies of the Greeks, which I thought was very nice indeed.'

Joan, 10 yrs. 5 mths.

'I should like to be Helen of Troy, because you cannot tell what she is thinking of. You cannot tell her feelings. Really she was very nice. She could not help being beautiful. I expect she would rather be ugly and not have the war than beautiful and have had the war. I would.'

This child later decided that she would not be Helen after all. She was too small. I said that this did not matter, knowing this to be one of the reasons for her admiration of Helen's stately beauty. But children like a resemblance of physical attributes, and the feelings of the rest of the form were very strong, and this matters most to children of this age.

Phyllis, 11 plus.

'I should like to be Zeus. I think he is interesting because he is so strong and powerful. He is a good-tempered god and is very fair and just. He changes his mind and lets his wife have her own way in many things.'

It will be seen how personal these interpretations are, and that children are interested in characters for very different reasons. One was attracted to Achilles because of his weakness, and paradoxity, another to Priam for his fairmindedness, another to Helen for her unaccountability, a fourth to Zeus for his tolerant dominance. Moreover, what different levels of understanding were reached. Elizabeth had penetrated deeply into the sources of conflict in Achilles, but Joan had failed to account for Helen. She had in a charming way added her childish ideals and simplified a complex character, and yet she sensed something not quite straightforward—'You cannot tell her feelings'.

On the whole I have found that these children wanted me to choose their parts. They liked to discuss the characters, but they wanted me to give the final decision, and if, when we had acted the story, they thought I had cast badly they said so, and we made alterations. In casting a King Arthur play, I chose Elizabeth for Mordred. The class called out, 'poor you, you're a villain'. But she

DRAMATIC WORK IN SCHOOLS

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liked her part and retorted, 'I know, but I like nasty people, they are much more interesting than good ones; besides they are often quite nice when you get to know them.'

Not only are most children capable of this analysis of character, but a few of them at this age are capable of something more. They can often regard a book from the point of view of the author's intention, and seize his further meaning. That is to say, they can realize what Cervantes intended when he wrote *Don Quixote*, what Bunyan meant to prove in the character of his pilgrim. Although this is definitely critical appreciation, it cannot be stated as such. An answer to direct questions would probably prove worthless, but it may come out accidentally or in response to a question framing the situation concretely. For example, whilst discussing Ulysses and Christian, Molly said, 'Ulysses was a journey of life, Christian's was a journey in life.'

The following was an answer in an examination by Margaret (11 years, 3 months) to the question: Imagine that Don Quixote and Christian met on a journey; what do you think they would say to each other?

Margaret, 11 yrs. 3 mths.

Don Quixote and Christian met one day in a country village. Don Quixote had been in search of adventures and seeing Christian in a beautiful coat, embroidered with all kinds of stitches, stopped to address him thus: 'My good Sir, I pray tell me where thou hast procured such a delightful coat. For on my word I too would like one such as this, that my Lady Dulcinea del Toboso would then think I was some rich merchant on the sea?'

Christian answered politely, 'My dear Knight, since it seems that you are one, such a coat must

be won in the battle of life. If thou would'st wish for one, why dost thou not journey with me to the Celestial City and there not only will you receive this wonderful garment but more heavenly things will be yours.'

'Gladly would I go Sire, if only to procure such a garment. But first tell me all about this Celestial City. Is it very far from here? May I often come and go, for my Lady Dulcinea would weep her beauteous eyes if she did not see me at least every month?'

'My good Sire, it seems to me that ye think the Celestial City some carnal thing. But indeed, this is not so, for it is the highest place on earth—namely, Heaven.'

'Then may I not see my Lady Dulcinea, ever?' asked Don Quixote doubtfully.

'If her Ladyship come to the Celestial City herself you will see her there for ever.'

'Then for all the beautiful coats in the world, will I not desert my lady-love. Farewell!'

'Farewell', replied Christian sadly, 'May fortune grant you that which you desire.'

But Don Quixote was out of hearing. He was in search of more adventures.

I believe that everyone who has read these books will agree that here is their essence and spirit; that desire to get the best of both worlds which often seeks the disguise of the romantic, and the austere dignity and single-mindedness of Bunyan's pilgrim. Moreover, the child has unconsciously borrowed in style from both books the inconsequent charm of the Quixotic, the earnest grace of 'the true wayfaring Christian!' Surely this offers proof that children do not only recapitulate earlier and more primitive stages of development (a theory we have heard *ad nauseam*), but they also forecast more advanced phases and ideas which they will be many years reaching on a conscious, analytical plane. They are indeed greater than they know.

The Younger Juniors

Elizabeth P. Friend

THERE is an interesting situation to be observed at the bottom of the Junior School now that schools have reopened in the evacuated areas.

Owing to the six months closure of schools Class I of the Junior School is a group of children who have never been the top class of the Infant School. Consequently their attitude and outlook is without precedent. In the Infant School the children of the top class are important and 'responsible'. They may be the youngest of the family at home,

but at school they are the oldest, and persons of consequence. It is in this class that they lose many of their infant ways and develop independence and self-reliance.

These children, when they move from the Infant to the Junior Department, suffer a certain amount of shock, as people do who from being the greatest, find themselves all in a day to be the least. There must be a certain amount of resentment—probably unconscious—which finds expression in difficult

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behaviour and a defiant attitude to older children, though rarely to the teacher.

But now, after six months holiday, there is a Class I who have never been the oldest children, the responsible ones. As far as their school life is concerned they have stood still for six months and have come into the Junior School simply because they are of age to be there. They are largely concerned with themselves, as they were in the Infant School. They have suffered no shock, as their predecessors did. They have little need to be 'put in their place' by the older children. Consequently their concern with other children is negligible and they are, on the whole, self-sufficient.

One meets now a much 'younger' Junior at the bottom of the school, much less concerned with and distracted by the outside world—not particularly interested in new subjects, not particularly co-operative in Handwork. In fact they show every satisfaction with their crude unfinished efforts, and are strikingly 'Infant' in behaviour and reaction.

In such a class a boy of personality and independent nature, just eight years old, nursed a baby doll

borrowed for an hour from one of the girls. He sat through a story with the doll in front of him, holding its feet with both hands, and later, during choral singing of favourite songs, he danced it up and down in front of him in time with the music. It is significant that none of the class commented on this, or appeared to notice anything unusual. Nor was there any surprise when the boy announced to all and sundry: 'I love dolls'—stating, but certainly not defending, a self-evident fact. Indeed the presence of dolls in this class is a remarkable feature, as formerly dolls in Class I have been rare among the girls and scorned by the boys.

The situation gives rise to many interesting questions. What have these children lost and gained in their six months out of school? Have they developed more naturally for lack of stimulating experience at the top of the Infant School? Or are they now too young for want of the stimulus? Will they 'catch up' with the rest when the class is divided at the end of the year, and become average Juniors? And does it matter if they do not? The answers lie in the future and will be worth looking for.

Book Reviews

Fundamentals of Democratic Education.

By R. Ulick. (American Book Company, price 13/6.)

The view has recently been expressed in an educational journal in this country that questions concerning the purpose of education are not the province of the teacher, whose sole concern should be with method and technique, or the procedure whereby effect is given to the governing principles laid down by those in authority. Such a standpoint might be expected in a Totalitarian state; it is disturbing to find it enunciated in a professedly Democratic one.

Educators in Democratic states are becoming increasingly aware of the necessity of examining the foundations of the faith that is in them. They are aware that a new civilization cannot continue to live on the culture of a past one. An increasing number of teachers are becoming concerned about the answer to fundamental problems—Why do we educate? Whom do we educate? Towards what ends do we educate?

It is significant then that the first three chapters of Dr. Ulick's book should deal with these very three questions. It is good, too, to read in the introduction 'a civilization does not deserve its title unless it constantly attempts to become aware of its inherent

postulates and its deeper responsibilities for the liberation of humanity.'

In his discussion on Educational Values—a section of his work which demands special consideration in view of its importance for the present-day educationist, Ulick says, 'This problem is essentially not only that of the school, but of civilization . . . Our modern age cannot truly find itself unless we find for our schools an organizing idea which will simultaneously make our youth and ourselves aware of the needs of our time and of its particular mission in the history of mankind.' Education must express the values of the age and assist in their realization. If the values of the age are ill-defined or contradictory or superficial, then educational effort will show the same deficiencies. In an age of disintegration educationists have a difficult and onerous task, for they have to endeavour to express and make effective the coming new integration in an age in which much educational work is in a state of disintegration.

The section of the book which deals with method will be read with interest by all teachers. It is sound, yet progressive, stimulating and provocative of thought in the suggestions it puts forward. So, too, the sections upon Education and Society and Education and the State contain much that needed saying in these days.

One gains the general impression that here is an

author who has devoted critical thought to the problems which have confronted him and then set out to give his fellow practitioners in his own sphere the benefit both of his critical thought and of his constructive imagination. For the volume does not fall into the class of those books which are merely critical but which are deficient in constructive suggestions. It builds and builds soundly. Its essays that most difficult task of finding the values which will reunite a distracted world and its suggestions will be welcomed by all serious students of education.

H. G. Stead

Poetry in Practice. A Case for the Progressive Study of Poetry in Schools. By Norman Callan. (Lindsay Drummond, Ltd., 3/6.)

Here is an exceptional book, filling, at least to some extent, a serious gap in educational literature. Lascelles Abercrombie's *Poetry: its Music and Meaning*, A. E. Housman's *Name and Nature of Poetry*, and Elizabeth Drew's *Discovering Poetry*, with a few other such treatises on poetic appreciation, are treasure-houses to the English teacher; but little has as yet been written on bridging the gulf between the theory and practice of poetry and balancing the training of critical appreciation by its natural complement—systematic guidance in verse-making.

This dual approach is the theme of Mr. Callan's book. 'If poetry is to be brought back into the language', he says, '. . . there should be a defined programme of teaching it, of bringing out the latent poet which is in everyone.' Vague generalizations and platitudes about poetry are useless; useless too is the artificial segregation of poetry from 'the bulks of actual things'; poetry has its roots in everyday

experience, though its branches may sweep the sky.' In Mr. Callan's programme there is no place for such segregation or such vagueness. 'Any poem, broadly speaking, may be analysed into two divisions—technique and content.' In 'technique' he includes all the poet's 'artifices'—rhyme, metre, word-sound, figures of speech, etc.; in 'content', what lies behind these artifices. By an honest, clear-minded study and assessment of the artifices, then, he suggests that we may gradually discover and understand something of the poet's purpose—the content "for which the poem had to be".

Concurrently with this critical study, Mr. Callan's programme plans for each stage of analysis to have its own creative counterbalance.

The suggestions throughout give evidence that Mr. Callan has a fine understanding of both education and poetry. They have a clear psychological basis; are conceived to stimulate and discipline but never to impose upon the child's own creative impulse; and reveal a rare and sensitive approach to poetic values.

The arrangement of the book, however, is not altogether happy. In his efforts to present his case as precisely and honestly as possible, Mr. Callan has sometimes over-compressed his material and sometimes been needlessly repetitive. Certain omissions, too, are surprising; for instance, in his consideration of the poet's technical 'artifices' no mention seems to be made of the important relation between *line* and *phrase*. Nevertheless teachers of English and lovers of poetry have so much to be grateful for here that such criticism seems redundant; indeed, it merely expresses the wish that so good a book might have been even a little better.

Mona Swann

Some Forthcoming Conferences, Lectures, etc.

June 22nd and 23rd . . .	New Education Fellowship (29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1). Week-end Conference on 'Youth of To-day and To-morrow' at Ridgeway School, Pennington, Lymington, Hants. Full programme on application. Open to non-members.
July 20th—August 3rd . . .	The Nursery School Association of Great Britain (8 Endsleigh Gardens, London, W.C.1). Summer School on 'Children's Needs at the Nursery Stage of Life' at St. John's College, York.
July 19th—August 15th . . .	The University Extension Registrar , University of London, Royal Holloway College, Englefield Green, Surrey. Holiday Course in English for Overseas Students.
August 1st—August 8th . . .	British Social Hygiene Council (The Education Officer, Educational Advisory Board, Tavistock House South, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1). Summer School for teachers on 'Social Biology in the School—War-time Problems' to be held at Westminster College, Cambridge.
August 7th—August 14th . . .	Association for Education in Citizenship (10 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1). Summer School on 'Education for Effective Democracy' at Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford.
July 31st—August 1st . . .	Conference of Educational Associations , Friends' House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1. Particulars from 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
August 1st—August 15th . . .	Froebel Foundation Twenty-seventh Summer School, Bishop Otter College, Chichester. Opening address: Bishop of Chichester. Theme: Some of the Immediate Problems of Education in Home and School—religious and psychological, hygienic, practical and recreational. Enquiries: Acting Secretary: 2 Manchester Square, W.1.
August 1st	Speech Fellowship and Institute (9 Fitzroy Square, London, W.1). Conference at Stockwell Training College, Bromley, Kent.
August 2nd—August 19th . . .	National Council of Girls' Clubs (Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, London, W.C.1). Summer School in Club Work, Sandecotes School, Parkstone, Nr. Bournemouth.
August	The British Folk Dance and Song Society (Cecil Sharp House, 2 Regent's Park Road, London, N.W.1). Folk Dance Summer School at Stratford-on-Avon.
Thursday, August 1st— Thursday, August 8th . . .	Wilts., Hants. and Dorset Tour
Tuesday, August 13th— Tuesday, August 20th . . .	Roman Wall Tour
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THE MODERN APPROACH TO THE CURRICULUM

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General Science

G. P. Meredith

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GENERAL Science suffers as much from the advocacy of its friends as from the attacks of its enemies. To judge from the attitude commonly met with among teachers neither the aim nor the content of General Science has been clearly grasped. The result is a philosophy of 'better to bear those ills we have than flee to others that we know not of'.

The first question to settle is 'Why General Science?'; the second is 'Whither General Science?'; and the third is 'What General Science?' The first is very simply answered. The science taught in schools should be general, not special, because the world in

which the children will have to live is general, not special. Schools have a task which, if properly appreciated, is staggering in its difficulty. In addition to their responsibility for assisting healthy and happy growth in every way possible and encouraging a satisfactory social adjustment, they have the task of enabling the children to get to grips with their world. That world has to be known, understood, and, in some sense and in some measure, conquered. Thus it is the business of the school to bring the world to the child. An impossible task.

The history of education is the history of the attempts made to perform this impossible task.

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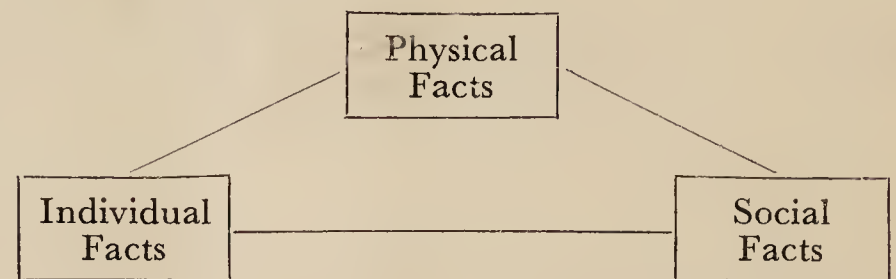
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The teaching of General Science is to be interpreted as the latest and most promising attempt. The task is impossible because not even the most talented of adults can grasp the world in its entirety. No one can do more than sample it. The reason why General Science is a promising attempt is because it sets out to provide a more representative sample than previous attempts. But we need to bear in mind that 'General Science' is not an entity but a term. At present its meanings are almost as diverse as the people using it. Thus it is possible, indeed certain, that its advocates support General Science for several radically distinct reasons. Therefore it is a waste of time to discuss methods and syllabuses until agreement has been secured concerning aims.

We might go on to consider in philosophical perspective and with an abundance of quotations the multifarious aims which have been proposed for science teaching, but such chewing of the cud introduces nothing new and does not make for clarity. The view I shall advocate here is that the body of knowledge and activity which the term 'Science' usually refers to has arisen from *man's attempts to solve problems*, and that problem-solving is the most useful meaning we can give to the term 'science'. The special sciences arise from the consideration of special types of problem. The divisions between them are somewhat arbitrary. The view that each gives of Nature is very partial. The wider the range of problems considered, the more general the science. A child, on growing up, encounters an endless variety of problems. If he has been taught to solve only a few very special types of problem he will, as a rule, fail to apply the scientific attitude to problems outside that range and will revert to the primitive attitude, *i.e.* to magic. Magic is the savage's groping attempt at science and at that level is excusable. At the civilized level it must be regarded as regressive and dangerous, just as infantile behaviour in an adult is regarded as a psychotic symptom. The main forms of civilized magic are politics, superstition and quackery. These arise in just those fields where problems are most acute and objectivity most essential and most difficult.

Objectivity is the keynote of science. Objectivity in education means putting the

child on a firm footing in the realm of fact. He has three orders of fact to contend with, a Triangle of Facts :



These facts are not independent of each other. The child's individual problems are partly a matter of his own individuality, partly of the physical basis of his existence (*e.g.* nutrition, location, etc.) and partly of his family and social *milieu*. Social facts are determined partly by the nature of society, partly by the individuals who compose it, and partly by its physical (including economic, climatic, etc.) conditions. Physical facts arise partly from the stuff of which the world is made and partly from what individuals and societies have made of that stuff. All three sets of facts are what they are because of previous facts—they are historically conditioned.

This triangle of facts, and the problems to which they give rise, forms a basis for a rational school curriculum. Here we shall find the appropriate setting for General Science. But before showing this we must settle explicitly our aim and attitude. In the Triumphant Twenties which followed the last war-to-end-war, individualism ran riot in education. The child must express himself without hindrance and without considering in whose interests he must express himself. The Thrifty Thirties followed, in which social problems were forced on our attention. Instead of solving them we turned to such considerations as the Mysterious Universe and a huge armaments programme. We are now in the frightful forties, witnessing a stampede from all reason. What attitude must we adopt to this holocaust? The scientific attitude requires us to solve the problem. But the scientific attitude alone is not enough. *In whose interests is the solution to be?* The only possible answer which we can consider is : in the interests of humanity. This gives us the attitude commonly known as Scientific Humanism.

Human society rests upon two things :

1. A common wish to live together as happily as maybe. ('Humanism'.)
2. A common determination to solve the problems arising out of this wish. ('Science'.)

Unless the attitude of Scientific Humanism is adopted, General Science means anarchic nonsense. Granted this attitude we can fit our curriculum to our triangle of facts in some such scheme as that appearing below.*

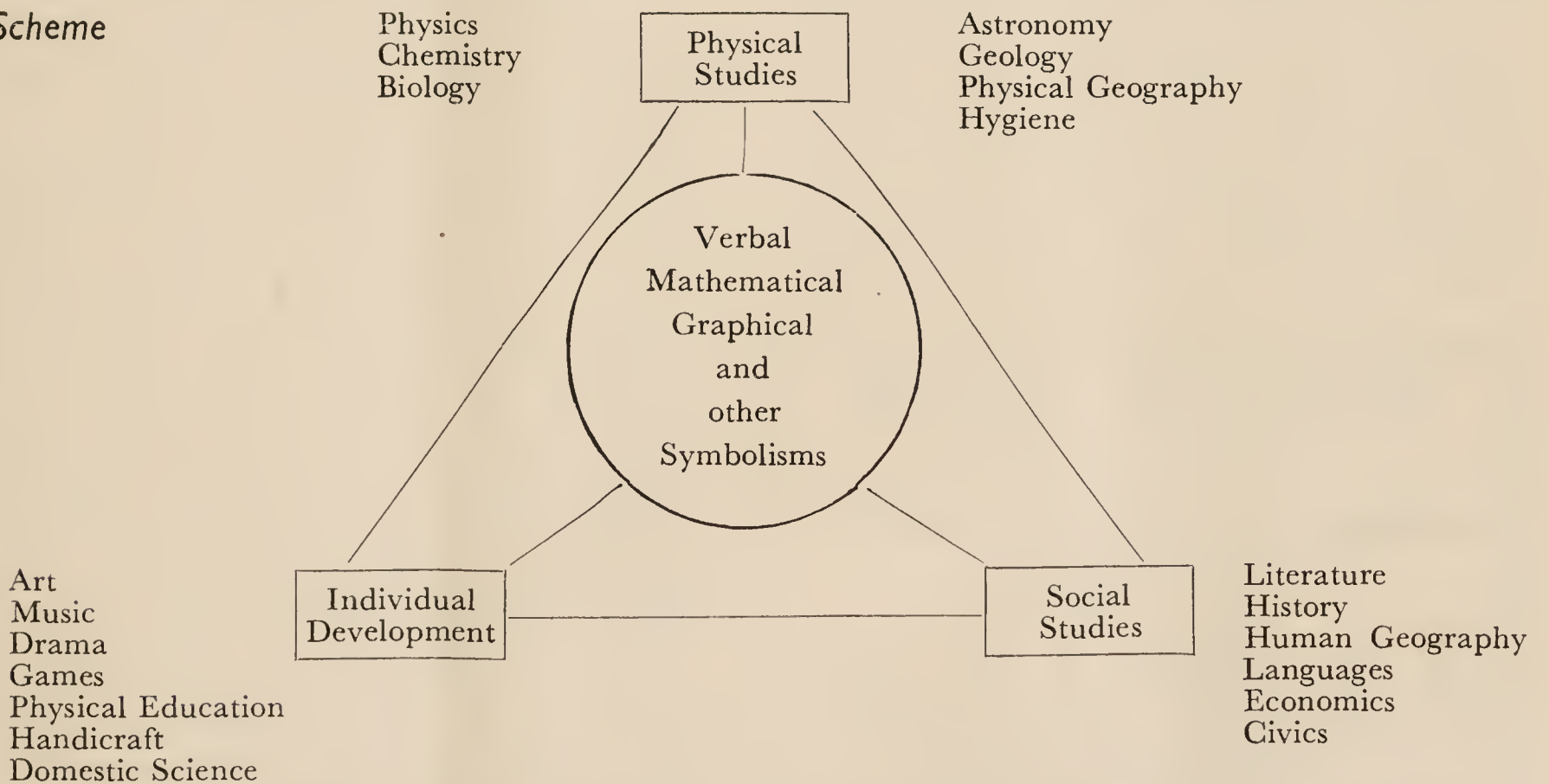
Now this is a pretty enough scheme but just what difference will it make from 9 till 12.30 and from 2 till 4 to Tom, Dick and Harry? This can be answered by considering present practice and the criticism of it prompted by the experimental results of educational psychology.

While there is an increasing number of excellent projects, particularly in rural senior schools, to correlate the subjects of the curriculum about a central topic such as ecology, poultry-keeping, agriculture, etc., and while it would be possible to carry out similar correlation schemes in other areas, *e.g.* power production, the sea, coal, etc., the end of educational anarchy is not yet in sight. The problem of diversity within unity is not yet solved. A society cannot cohere unless it has *some* common aims, *some* commonly agreed

terms, *some* common experience. The school is the place for establishing this community of outlook. At present the net effect of our anarchic curriculum is to provide a variety of unrelated skills and ideas in the vague hope that some of them will be transferred to the situations which the child will encounter on leaving school. The educational and psychological experiments on the transfer of training show this hope to be largely illusory. But they also show that generalizations formed in one field, when made explicit, can be applied in other fields. Another name for this process is *extrapolation* and it is the method by which science advances. It is the application of what is learnt from small samples to large samples. It is both dangerous and indispensable. It is what happens willy-nilly when the child leaves school. It constitutes the relation between education and society. Because the curricula of the past have been unrepresentative and anarchic, society to-day is anarchic.

The suggestion I put forward is not, therefore, that 'General Science' should be introduced into the school curriculum. Something more fundamental than a modification of a single subject is needed to remedy our present

* Scheme



This triangular scheme may be conceived as the base of a pyramid dominated by an apex symbolizing the controlling attitude of Scientific Humanism.

discontents. The suggestion is rather that the whole curriculum should be treated as a comprehensive science. This science provides an integrated, extensive sample of the world with which the child has to get to grips, and trains him to solve, by scientific means, a wide range of problems of the types he is likely to encounter. While each of the special subjects retains its own range of matter and interest, each is related to the others, partly in thought-out detail and partly in basic aims, terms and methods of approach.

Now this is easier said than done. But done it must be, if education is to be a determining force in history rather than a chaotic irrelevance. Where can we start? My own view is that the crucial problem is that of symbolism. There is a movement, growing in momentum, which regards language in particular and symbolism in general as the key problems in man's development. The sciences which have succeeded in rationalizing their symbolism, such as Chemistry and Biology, have forged ahead. Those whose symbolism is still primitive such as Psychology and Economics, are still in a state of confusion. If education is to tackle scientifically the problem of cultivating that most remarkable of plants, the child, and solve it so as to produce a healthy society, it is imperative that it should cut out the babel of tongues with which the various specialist teachers speak. The problems to be solved a few years hence in a land ravaged by raids and invasions will require, above all, clear vision and rapid decision. How can these capacities be developed in schools offering nothing but a

heterogeneous miscellany of unco-ordinated specialities?

Lack of space precludes more than a hint at such a system of basic educational terms as would serve to relate the diverse school studies in a common scientific nomenclature. School subjects, when examined, show most or all of the following features, which form what for brevity I have called the PORICA scheme:

- P.** Problems. The statement of problems, the adoption of the problem-solving attitude and the search for problem-solving techniques.
- O.** Observations, including experiments and all methods of obtaining information.
- R.** Representations. This includes all methods, verbal, mathematical, graphical, tabular, etc., by which knowledge is symbolized.
- I.** Inferences and Ideas. The formation of generalizations, concepts, conclusions.
- C.** Connexions. The establishing of relations between items and bodies of knowledge.
- A.** Applications and Activities. The utilization of all the foregoing to the satisfaction of man's needs.

This framework of terms provides a meeting-ground for all objective school studies. Practically all the items dealt with in any school subject fall under one or other of these headings. Children would thus see the same basic activities running through the whole curriculum. Instead of jumping from subject to subject they would be continually solving problems, but of different types. Their attitude to learning would be active, not passive. They would see the objective criteria of science as the controlling factors in all judgments. They would be building up an attitude to life itself, an attitude whose marks were clarity, objectivity, determination. Education would become relevant to human needs.

There we must leave it. The problem of General Science has been stated rather than solved. It can be solved only by intensive team-work among teachers of all subjects.

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Geography

G. J. Cons

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IN the cupboards of many teachers of geography there is, as it were, a lay figure that, when suitably clothed, is transfigured into a geographical fiction called 'geographical man'; or more often, it takes on a diminutive form and becomes a 'geographical child'. One day this geographical 'phantom' is an Eskimo or an Eskimo child; on another occasion, perhaps the next week, a quick change is made and the lay figure becomes a Dutchman; or Hans the Dutch boy; and in another lesson, a Swiss, or Franz the Swiss boy. Our geography lessons are peopled with these fictitious figures, often in fancy dress, that are nothing more than museum pieces and however much we try to animate them they remain inert figments of the imagination clothed in an air of unreality. This is a device that dominates much of the teaching of our junior department and is based both on a failure to understand the place of man in the geographical argument and to realize that children are interested in the 'big, buzzing, blooming' world of their immediate social environment in all its functions, in its food supply, its communications and transport, its productions.

At a world convention of teachers of geography I should like to attend the funeral rites of this lay figure and deliver the address—*l'oraison funèbre*. For my text I would quote from *Principles of Human Geography* by P. Vidal de la Blache. 'Man acts and is geographically significant only in groups. He modifies the surface of the earth in groups.' This authoritative statement should be inscribed over the portals of every classroom where geography may be taught. Unlike such subjects as anatomy, physiology and psychology, geography is not concerned with the study of the individual man as such, but its field of discourse, in its human aspect, is man in relation to the group.

There are many orders of groups. The smallest molecular group of human beings exists in the camp of two or three Eskimo tents, a group that operates as a unit in all its

important functions: other slightly larger molecular groups are the 'auls' of the Kasak and the villages of the Malayan pigmies. In civilized life, from this point of view of settlement, there is an interesting graduation in complexity; there are the hamlets, the villages, the towns, ports, cities and metropolitan cities which exhibit increasingly articulated groupings of man to satisfy his social and economic purposes. Then there is the order of groupings that passes from the tribe to the nation; there are the economic groupings in farms, factories, mines, and so forth; also the racial groups, the linguistic groups and the religious groups. In passing it is to be noted that the geographer studies these different orders of groupings in their relationship to the physical fundamentals by which they are conditioned.

For educational purposes the guidance of these considerations is clear; it is that the study of the group in its varied manifestations should constitute the central theme of the teaching of human geography. In our early geographical teaching usually designated by the vague title 'Peoples of other Lands' the topic of study should be the settlement or economic group in a characteristic regional setting. For example, our theme should be the Swiss village and its associated economy and not the Swiss boy; the economy or economic mode of living would be described in terms of the work of the inhabitants of the village. It is an actual Swiss Alpine village that would be described, one that was known to exist and of which first hand descriptive accounts and good illustrations were available. The Swiss village would be described as a representative sample of a mode of living in high mountains. In all this early work we need the actual concrete particular, whether it is a farm, mine, factory or village, and from this vivid and live treatment of the particular the teacher can point to the geographical generalizations that are being slowly fashioned in the intellectual life of the child.

This device of the geographical lay figure has also penetrated the teaching of geography in the senior departments. Usually its form has more detail and it is more carefully and elaborately dressed. Nevertheless, it is still a lifeless abstraction. For example, in the place of the fictitious wheat farmer, of the Prairie Provinces of Canada, we need the study of an actual farm that really exists and is representative of the farming conditions of the Prairie Provinces ; and then by the study of its layout, the number and use of its fields, the workers' seasonal round of activities and other such significant details selected for their geographical relevancy the farm would be touched into life by actualities that would give the children a real geographical experience. From this study of a particular farm the teacher can then point to the generalities of relief, climate, and soil, etc. ; these abstractions would be rooted in a particular, and so have a core of actuality. This is the method of study by means of representative sampling. It can be applied to any branch of the teaching of geography. The agriculture of Great Britain can best be approached by means of studies of representative farms ; for sheep farming—a farm in the South Downs and another in Wales or Cumberland ; for fruit farming—a fruit farm in the Vale of Evesham ; for market gardening—a market garden near Slough ; and so forth. Coal-mining demands the study of a particular mine ; cotton manufacture a particular mill . . . In the geography of South Africa, the studies of a particular gold mine, an Afrikaans pastoral farm on the Karroo, a Natal sugar plantation, a Zulu kraal or a native reserve, an actual journey from Cape Town to Pretoria are called for. Such studies are actual ; they are localized and refer to exact groupings ; they give the subject of geography accuracy ; they free it, in its human aspects, from the charge of vagueness and loose thinking. Increasingly the appropriate field studies of these samples are becoming available for teachers. It will be the main function of the modern geography text-book to supply the concrete actual studies of representative samples and the process of generalization will be left to the teacher.

To pass to another pre-conception that inhabits many teachers' minds and hinders

progress in teaching of geography : it is well known that the unit of study in geography is a region. But let us be quite clear about an important point and that is, a region is a scientific abstraction, the end-product of a process of systematization by which a science makes its advance in the realm of knowledge. It is impossible here to enter the arena of discussion concerning the concept of region. At the moment there is a lively disagreement among geographers as to criteria of differentiation and delimitation. Children should not be treated as mature geographers ; highly abstracted concepts are not for children, and to attempt to delimit the regions of the world is not an exercise for children. Nevertheless it is possible for children to appreciate regional experience. The Egyptian Fellah in his village, the Indian Ryot in his Punjab village, and the Tibetan shepherd in his encampment, have different diets, modes of shelters, means of transport, economic activities, customs, and so forth, that in large measure have flowed out of that two-way living interaction of human and physical conditions.

The physical conditioning of the regional experience is complex and to select the aspects suited to the understanding of the child it is helpful to study a region in terms of movement.

From this point of view regions may be conceived as differing in their arrangement of significant sequences of events which succeed one another in ordered movement. The essential qualities of a region are kinetic and they are rhythmic in character. There are the daily rhythmic changes characteristic of a region—the diurnal changes of light and darkness, of heat and cold, and, in the tropics, of rainfall ; and diurnal changes in animal and human activities. There are also seasonal rhythms that change with climatic type, the type of natural and cultivated vegetation and also the type of economy. To appreciate any particular regional experience it is helpful to see the region in terms of the significant daily and seasonal rhythms of life. The life of an Egyptian fellah moves to the rhythm of the rise and fall of the River Nile ; the life of a Chinese village in the region of North China pulses to the seasonal flow of the monsoons ; and in a highly industrialized region on its

human side, it is the daily rhythm of life that is significant. Hence in the teaching of representative samples of the settlement, economic unit, etc., it becomes an important method in the teaching to emphasize the daily and seasonal characteristics of the mode of living in order to elucidate the main features of the regional experience. Here is an important principle that will determine the selection of the facts to be taught and their organization. This principle will exert a necessary discipline in our teaching. It will be appreciated that the method of approach, briefly indicated here, applies both to junior and senior work.

To justify another suggestion to be made in the space that remains to me and to support the methods of approach already mentioned, it is necessary to engage in a brief discussion of the educational aims of the teaching of geography. In his significant little book, *Education and Social Change*, Professor Clarke states, 'In actual fact both (*educational*) thought and practice are much more clearly conditioned by social realities which are themselves the result of historical and economic forces, than by the highly generalized principles which figure so prominently in the text-books', and again he quotes, 'No educational activity or research is adequate in the present stage of consciousness unless it is conceived in terms of a sociology of education'. At last education is being surveyed from the sociological standpoint and there is in sight the shift of emphasis from individuality to sociality. Education is a social process and has a social purpose, and it is obvious that in this sociological context the teaching of geography takes on fresh significance. The goal of its highest endeavour and the standards of achievement by which it should be evaluated are social. The purpose of school geography is to facilitate the adjustment of the child to the social order in which it lives, understanding, within the limited range of its experience, the social and economic realities of to-day and reaching out to the changed order.

In other words the great concern of the teaching of geography is the training of a social 'sense' that sees and feels the common interests of all members of society and is awakened to the need for a constructive effort on behalf of

the community. Our greatest need to-day is the creation of socially alive citizens.

The social world lives and lives only within the experience of the individual, and geography can help the child to discover the social world in experience. The experience of every child and youth, in the country and the city, is what it is in its present actuality because of the events of the locality of the school. As the children go backwards and forwards, as they play in the streets and the lanes, they are keenly interested in the contemporary life of their locality. It is their public world and its happenings that are the source of their direct 'public' experiences. They meet the workers concerned with the food supply of their neighbourhood; they watch civic workers at their tasks; they are keenly aware of the flow of movement of buses, lorries, and motor cars in their roads and streets, and they observe and talk to the workers in the factories and on the farms. We have tended to overlook the range and significance of these social experiences. These experiences are of the stuff of society and out of them can be born the social awareness and social understanding so vitally needed for the reconstruction of our society after this War.

From the point of view of the 'public' experience of children it is suggested that the neighbourhood may be studied from four aspects: (1) food supplies, (2) communications and transport, (3) civic services, and (4) production. In passing it may be stated that this scheme of study affords the basis of a four-year course in the study of the local environment. For details of method of the study, readers are referred to the book *Actuality in School* (Methuen). It is to be realized that each topic of study is approached from the sociological standpoint and is explored not only in its present actuality, but also in its historical development. For example, the study of the postal service of the locality may include a mapping of the distribution of the post-boxes, telephone kiosks, telegraph poles, post offices, the postmen's routes; a classroom interview with a postman and a visit to the sorting office; and at the same time, as an integral part of unitary activity and study there should be included the historical development of this important means of human intercourse. And

furthermore from the geographical point of view there is the extension from the postal service of the locality to that of the homeland and to the rest of the world. In most of the topics studied such an extension is possible and affords an interesting approach to a course of geography that springs from the child's immediate experiences of its locality. It is in facilitating this extension that the value of film lies for the teaching of geography; by its powers of intimacy and immediacy the film can give the child an imaginative experience of events remote from its direct experience. The child can put the letter in the post-box, watch and interrogate the postman on his job, visit the sorting office, and there his direct experience usually ends, but after that he can follow the letter in a G.P.O. film entitled 'Penny Journey—Night Mail' and so complete the social experience. That is the power of film in the teaching of geography: it can complete our teaching on its imaginative side.

In all these suggestions there is an under-

lying idea that may help to give them a degree of coherence. The idea is best expressed in the profound words of Sir Halford MacKinder when he said in the course of a lecture, 'Imagination is the specifically geographic mode of thought.' To imagine accurately the geographical scene of whatever order it may be, the regional experience in its most significant characters, and the human conditions of selected aspects of the school locality, the homeland and the world is another way of expressing the purpose of the teaching of geography. (The great aid to this accurate and imaginative reconstruction is the map and a graded course in simple map reading and map making is fundamental in any course of school geography.) Our aim is to develop a sound imaginative life from the geographical point of view with the hope that from the ordered patterns of generic images there may spring concepts that will condition the development of a social attitude that seeks to give itself in service to the well-being of the community.

The Study of History in Schools

M. V. C. Jeffreys

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HISTORY is one of the worst taught school subjects, if it is not still one of the best hated. Teachers whose annual task it is to prepare pupils for public examinations might well conclude from their painful experience that history is not a suitable subject of study for boys and girls. And, in a way, they would be right. Anyone, on the other hand, who has witnessed the delight with which children study the panoramas in the Science Museum illustrating the history of transport, or the models of sixteenth and seventeenth century London in the London Museum, and has attempted to cope with their observant comments and intelligent questions, will as readily form an opposite opinion, as also will those who know with what lively interest boys will enter into such diverse activities as excavating the site of a medieval

building or using the resources of a library for the purpose of writing a historical play. A small boy of my acquaintance was asked by his teacher to make a model of a Roman galley. The boy set off by himself and searched the British Museum and the London Museum, plagued curators and borrowed books; finally, having made his model, he returned to me a book which I had lent him at the beginning of his investigations, with the triumphant announcement that the information contained in it was hopelessly inaccurate. Yet this boy responds no more eagerly than his fellows to instruction of the traditional sort about the Constitutions of Clarendon or the Pragmatic Sanction. The contrast between the two attitudes, the one eager and the other reluctant, confronts the teacher of history with a problem, to the solution of which it is

the object of this article to attempt some contribution.¹

I. Difficulties of History as a School Subject

The fact must be faced that, as a subject of instruction, history presents serious inherent difficulties. To begin with, as has often been pointed out, history concerns human experience in great complexity and at the adult level. Many of the events, and relations between events, described even in elementary textbooks, are beyond the pupil's understanding, except in the most superficial sense. What the child lacks is not intelligence but experience. The difficulty cannot be overcome by mere verbal simplification—a method that leads only to futilities such as telling the child that 'Renaissance' means 'rebirth' and thinking that this is an explanation of an historical movement! Moreover, every teacher who has tried to make difficult historical situations intelligible to the young must have found himself in the dilemma of which the two horns are respectively the incomprehensible and the paltry. For example, it is fatally easy to leave the impression in one's pupils' minds that the great quarrel at the Synod of Whitby was all about the date of Easter and the way in which one should shave one's head—a view of the situation which, while giving it a kind of intelligibility, does so at the cost of implying that our ancestors were nitwits, which is bad history. If, on the other hand, we strive to get boys and girls of twelve, or even of sixteen, to understand what the issues really were between Celtic and Roman Christianity, we shall exhaust ourselves without edifying our pupils.

Another inherent difficulty of the subject is the plain fact that no direct access to the past is possible. Unlike the physical sciences, which deal with classes of events and whose data can therefore be reproduced any number of times, history deals essentially with the unique and non-recurrent. 'Historical reality . . . is above all a concrete and not an abstract

reality. . . . Everything genuinely historical has both a particular and a concrete character. Carlyle, the most concrete and particular of historians, says that John Lackland came upon this earth on such and such a day. This indeed is the very substance of history'.² Furthermore, the history teacher is at a disadvantage in comparison with his geographical colleague in that he cannot take his class to see John Lackland seal the Charter, nor can he show a photograph of the scene. Not only is there no direct access to the past, but the materials for its reconstruction are fragmentary and confused.

A third difficulty is presented by the vast and ever-increasing bulk of historical material, which not only makes it almost impossible for the teacher to keep abreast of modern research, but also creates a grievous problem of selection of material for inclusion in the syllabus. There is, in fact, far too much history. As regards the planning of the syllabus, the modern teacher is in a more embarrassing position than his predecessors of a generation ago, not only because of the great difficulty and importance of the chapter of history that has actually been made in that interval, and not only because of the wealth of modern research that has made necessary the revision of many of the earlier chapters, but also because we are to-day no longer content with the scope of a course that traces British history from 1066 (or 55 B.C.) to 1901 (or 1914). To-day we all subscribe to the doctrine that the syllabus should somehow span the entire evolution of human society, in its length, from the dim subhuman past to the very brink of the future, as well as in its breadth of cultural variety. When history syllabuses complacently followed the lines of *1066 and All That*, we at least knew where we were. But now we do not know where we are, for we have followed Mr. Wells into the wilderness, and he has left us there.

II. The Purpose of Historical Study in School and its place in the Curriculum

Many reasons for teaching history have been specified at one time or another, from stand-points of character-building, mental training,

¹ In the space at my disposal, however, I cannot hope to do much more than make a rather bald restatement of ideas that have been more fully and less dogmatically expressed elsewhere. I would refer readers to my book, *History in Schools: the Study of Development* (Pitman, 1939), and also to the pamphlet, *A History Course for the Senior School* (University of London Press, 1936). The results of some practical experiments in schools were summarized in an article published in *History*, December 1936.

² Nicolas Berdyaev, *The Meaning of History*, p. 13.

and practical utility. No adequate discussion of the matter is possible here,¹ and I can only indicate a point of view by means of the following dogmatic propositions:

(1) The unique contribution of historical study to our outlook on life, which defines its sufficient purpose, is that it enables us to see social change in its evolutionary perspective and cultivates the habit of mind that demands that perspective. History, that is to say, is the study of social development.²

(2) The priority traditionally given by historians to dynastic, military, and constitutional events is without rational foundation. History is defined by its method rather than by its content. Any aspect of the life of society is fit matter for historical study provided that it is studied in its development.

If these assertions are accepted, two conclusions can be drawn from them. First, the content and methods of the history course must be such that the pupil can appreciate the principles of development. This implies something more than that the material selected must be intelligible and interesting to the pupil. The child may learn things with enjoyment about the past without his studies being in any true sense historical. If the pupil is to get some grasp of the fact and nature of development—if, in fact, he is to achieve the beginnings of a philosophy of history, subject matter must be chosen in terms of which he is capable of appreciating development.

In the second place, it is misleading to think of history as a 'subject' with its own proprietary subject matter. If, as has been suggested, history is defined by its method rather than by its content, there is something to be said for eliminating it from the time-table as a separate subject. In its place we might well substitute 'Social Studies',³ which not only denotes more

satisfactorily a certain range of content but also, as a principle of organization, invites a profitable correlation of studies that are at present divided as separate disciplines. At the same time, the study of the other subjects, such as the physical sciences and mathematics, should include enough of the history of the subject to elucidate its development as a branch of knowledge and its meaning to society.

III. Methods of Study

The preceding suggestions, if carried out, would involve a considerable reorganization of the curriculum—a reorganization which I am convinced is highly desirable in the interests of education as a whole as well as of historical study in particular. It is some time since John Dewey, perhaps the greatest modern prophet of social reality in education, drew attention to 'the standing danger that the material of formal instruction will be merely the subject matter of the schools, isolated from the subject matter of life-experience.'⁴ More recently Professor Lancelot Hogben has urged that curricula should be organized in terms not of 'separate disciplines, such as chemistry or biology' but of the historical development of social problems; and he has brilliantly practised his preaching in *Science for the Citizen*. 'The school of the future', writes Mr. Happold, 'will have no room for men who can think only in the academic terms of physics and chemistry, history, and geography, who can only teach a body of knowledge which is vitually meaningless until it has built on it a superstructure which will probably never be built'.⁵

But reorganization on that scale takes time, besides which it must be confessed that teachers are cautious in their attitude towards reform. We must therefore expect that history will remain for some time to come as a subject on the time-table. It is to history-teaching in this sense that the following practical suggestions are primarily intended to apply, though it will be seen that the treatment in terms of 'lines of development', which is advocated below, is one that readily lends itself both to the planning of a course of social studies and

¹ Chapters II, III, and IV of my *History in Schools* represent an attempt at a reasoned statement of the point of view which is assumed in this article.

² It should be added that the word 'development' is used throughout this article in a neutral sense, without prejudging the question of progress. By saying that history is the study of development and that a study is 'historical' in so far as it is developmental, all that is implied about the nature of the historical process is that it is a process of significantly related change and not a chapter of accidents.

³ Readers will scarcely need to be reminded of the work already done in this direction by Mr. F. C. Happold, described in his *Citizens in the Making*. An interesting American experiment on these lines is summarized on p. 92 of my *History in Schools*.

⁴ *Democracy and Education*, p. 10.

⁵ F. C. Happold, *Citizens in the Making*, p. 61.

to the historical treatment of the other subjects of the curriculum.

(a) *Content.*

It was suggested earlier that the subject-matter of the history course should be so selected that the pupil can, in terms of it, appreciate the fact and nature of historical development. By this standard, the traditional type of syllabus fails, and for two reasons. In the first place, since the unit of study is the 'period', and all 'important' events within that period are supposed to receive some attention, the result is a conglomeration which eludes the comprehension of the pupils. In the second place, and for the same reasons, the traditional type of syllabus makes it impossible to exclude topics that are unintelligible to the pupils while selecting those that they can understand. In fact, of all methods of organizing historical subject matter, the 'periodic' is the worst from the point of view of facilitating the appreciation of development. Periods tend to be thought of as self-contained, and continuity is thus broken. The pretence of comprehensiveness within the period makes the story far too complicated for young minds, and also renders impossible the omission of topics which, though unintelligible to the young, are 'important'. A boy of fourteen, for example, can make very little sense of the reigns of the first two Stuarts. He does not understand what Puritans were, and (though he readily appreciates John Hampden's objection to paying an unfair tax) the constitutional implications of Shipmoney, Forced Loans, Impositions, and so on, are too much for him. It is a blessed relief to have done with the legislation of the Long Parliament and get to the fighting. And, apart from the obvious and immediate difficulties, how is the boy to grasp the relation of this brief chapter of our history to the decline of feudalism, the rise of towns and trade, the Tudor bureaucracy, the commercial imperialism of the eighteenth century, the Industrial Revolution, and parliamentary democracy? We need a unit of study which enables us to omit, and omit rationally, what the pupil cannot understand, and which facilitates the developmental treatment of the topics that we select.

In my *History in Schools* I have used the term 'lines of development' to describe the units of which the syllabus should, in my view, be built.¹ In brief the suggestion is that suitable topics should be chosen and studied through the full length of their development, passing through cultures and centuries. In each successive journey through the ages, the new knowledge must of course be related to the old, so that knowledge and understanding shall be well integrated. The nature of the lines of development chosen will, of course, vary according to the age and ability of the pupils. Young pupils need concrete and practical topics—material techniques are best. Thus pupils from nine to twelve years of age can study the development of such things as means of transport and communication, building, clothing. At thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen they can manage broader, but still concrete, subjects, such as the growth of trade, science, or public health. In the Sixth Form more abstract topics are possible, such as political and religious liberty, economic and political theories, and so on.

History courses of this type are already in use in schools of different kinds, not only in junior and senior elementary schools, but also in secondary schools, where some enterprising teachers have successfully planned courses based on 'lines of development' in the first three years which lead on to the existing School Certificate syllabuses. Needless to say, however, a corresponding reform of the School Certificate is clearly indicated.

(b) *Methods of Study.*

Teachers who adopt syllabuses based on lines of development will inevitably be led to reconsider the pupils' methods of study. The pupil who grasps the meaning of the particular history that he is studying, who has a sense of purpose in his studies and an intelligent notion of where they are leading him, can be given freedom and responsibility. With a syllabus based on lines of development, new opportunities will be found for individual and group work, with fresh stimulus to the

¹ In Chapters V and VI of *History in Schools* the case for this extension of the 'topic' method, in place of the periodic, is set forth at some length, and many aspects of the matter are discussed there which there is not room to mention in this article.

pupil's initiative. It is not claimed that these changes in methods of study are the inevitable consequences of accepting the new principles of syllabus-organization, but it is certain that the proposed type of syllabus is specially conducive to these improved methods—for the simple and sufficient reason that the pupil knows what he is doing and sees some point in doing it. It will be found that, as the pupils

become active instead of passive, there will be proportionately less need for class-instruction of the conventional type. And (an important condition of general education) pupils have much more incentive to use books intelligently, using the index and hunting out what they need from several books instead of merely submitting to whatever the next chapter in the class text-book happens to contain.

The Teaching of French

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FEW serious educators to-day would fail to agree that the study of at any rate one foreign language should find a central place in any well-devised educational curriculum.

If it is true that a knowledge of the language of a people is indispensable to a sympathetic understanding of that people, then there can be very little doubt that in present circumstances the language and literature of France should take chief place in modern language studies in this country and that French should be the first foreign tongue to be taught in our schools.

French, with its richness of vocabulary and its extraordinary clarity of expression is the language of an eminently logically-minded people, perhaps the most civilized people of modern times, and it is no accident that it should have maintained its position as the language of diplomacy in face of the claims of the various artificial international languages, or, indeed, of such a fine, flexible medium as English, well established as it is, as the international language of commerce.

There can be no doubt of the validity of the claims of French to be an educational medium of the first order. Recent developments in modern language teaching methods and techniques have, indeed, made it possible for the language and literature of France to constitute the basis of an intellectual and æsthetic training comparable with, and in some respects superior to, that provided by the classics. Contemporary French has the advantage over the classics of being a living

language, capable of dealing with the ideas and institutions of our own times and everyday happenings that are far less removed from the experience of our children than is the case with the classics. An additional advantage for the English child is the fact that French structures, idiom, and vocabulary—not forgetting the *faux amis*—are not so repellently strange and difficult, especially in the early stages of the learning process, as to damp the first enthusiasm of the beginner or to bar all but the abnormally intellectual from real enjoyment of literature, which should be the culminating point of any course of language study, and which forms the most easily accessible means by which interest, aroused by well-directed training at school, may be maintained and developed after schooldays are over. Few children, during their schooldays, attain sufficient mastery of the ancient languages to enable them to continue their reading for sheer pleasure afterwards: enquiry at our public libraries or a glance at the shelves of almost any second-hand bookseller in this country would suggest that French literature is read by many more English people than is the case with the works of the ancient classical writers. Furthermore, outside the range of the almost infinite variety of imaginative literature by French authors and a varied fare of periodical writings, many of them of a high literary and philosophical standard, a wide field of works on scientific and technical subjects is made available by a good reading knowledge of French. The power to speak and write French opens the way to further

facilities for increasing by personal contacts the already close links of friendship and mutual interests which bind our two peoples and can play its part in reducing still further the lingering national prejudices which still persist among the more insular-minded of both countries.

It is not enough that the study of French in our schools for which we are pleading shall be confined to the learning of an elaborate set of grammatical rules, complete with the most far-fetched exceptions and exceptions to exceptions, dressed up in dull and insipid vocabulary, to serve as materials for deadly translations from French into English and English into French on the lines of the time-honoured ritual that used to be known as classical studies. Nor shall we be serving the best interests of modern studies, if, at the other end of the scale, the University French syllabus is heavily over-loaded with the kind of philology that ignores dynamic phonetics and treats developments of language in the past as if they were merely the substitution of one set of printers' founts for another and almost ignores semantics, while on the literary side the over-loaded list of set books pays such abundant homage to medieval and classical French authors as to squeeze out almost completely the works of recent and contemporary authors whose writings are as yet too fresh and alive to have secured them canonization in the histories of French literature.

It is the present writer's firm conviction that, whatever else is sacrificed in French studies at school or university, the pivotal feature of the course must be the thorough mastery of the everyday idiom of Frenchmen in our own times. Without this mastery none of the other branches of French studies can be fully effective.

It is not our intention in this article to examine in detail the teaching of French right through to the end of a university course. Let us limit ourselves to a few observations on some of the principles and techniques by which our children of secondary school age may be brought to the point at which they can continue their studies when they have left school: how the less linguistically minded may be enabled at any rate to continue their reading

without further outside help, and those with greater linguistic aptitude may be prepared to undertake further studies, already equipped as they are with the power to understand spoken and written French and to speak and write every-day French naturally and correctly.

Every effort must be made throughout school life to link the French teaching with the other elements of the curriculum. The fact that we are dealing with a language that is actually used by a living people with activities like and yet unlike our own should never be lost sight of. The pictures, posters, travel folders, films, and maps belonging to the geography room can contribute perhaps as much as the books, gramophone records, etc., etc., of the French room to produce a live understanding of the people whose language is being studied. History can be made to reveal the part that France and Frenchmen have played in the evolution of the modern world. Lyautey can be shown as a great colonial administrator comparable with the great figures of our own Empire; the great and lasting positive contributions to civilization made by Napoleon can be set off against the havoc and suffering he wrought. Great discoveries of science can be linked with the life drama of a Lavoisier, whose name may acquire greater human significance than as the mere label of a scientific law and the names of Pasteur or the Curies can be made to suggest something of the debt the world owes to great Frenchmen and Frenchwomen of the past. It is not necessary for us to stress other links that may be established through art, music, and, indeed, almost all the subjects of the curriculum. The most effective links of all will be those established by correspondence with real French children, at first in English and later in French, to culminate, later on, in the most intimate and binding of all, those effected by personal contacts when the English child actually meets French children and their parents in their own country.

Let us now consider the means by which may be acquired that degree of linguistic knowledge which will give to the linguistic and the so-called non-linguistic child respectively the greatest surrender value when schooldays are over.

The school course for both types of child

falls into two distinct parts covering periods of roughly two and three years each. The course for the first two years should be much the same for both classes of learners. This is the period when the child is being trained in the formation of sound linguistic habits of direct association of language and meaning, and when he is acquiring a foundation vocabulary consisting not merely of isolated words, but of the common phrases and sentence forms in which the French express their everyday ideas. Active, systematic oral work will bulk large in this stage of the course. Language is essentially speech and it is through lively oral teaching, with an abundance of question and answer work dealing with everyday things and actions, and in which the use of English is avoided as far as ever possible, that the persistent habits and associations of the mother tongue will be held in check and there will be acquired that spontaneous understanding and command of simple French which is to be the basis of efficient studies later on, whether it be merely in reading or in the other more active branches of language study. It will be all to the good if, in the first six months, the work is entirely oral and the child is spared the confusion of interpreting printed French in terms of English pronunciation, rhythms, and sentence tunes. If the vocabulary of word and phrase used in this preliminary period is carefully chosen in relation to the contents of the first part of the printed 'course', the difficulties of interpreting written French will be considerably minimized later on, and the possibility of inculcating a good accent considerably enhanced.

The 'course', which constitutes the backbone of the first two-years' work, should provide plenty of materials (dialogues, playlets, etc.) suitable for giving the pupils abundant practice in speaking. There should be constant use of pointing, gesture, and movement by pupils and teacher and of objects, pictures, and blackboard sketches in order to make meaning clear. The vocabulary should be concrete and interesting and carefully graded in difficulty. The dosage of new words and phrases should not be too rapid at first, but later on care must be taken not to bore the brighter pupils by introducing new vocabulary too slowly.

Formal grammar should not appear during the first two years. The forms and constructions of straight-forward, simple French should be introduced progressively and systematically. Each new form or construction should be easily understandable from the context in which it is used. A variety of examples of the new language elements should follow the reading matter in which they are introduced for further oral practice and oral and written exercises on the new knowledge should follow. Every effort must be made to keep the work of earlier lessons fresh and available for further use by periodic exercises and tests. If all exercises on new knowledge are performed orally in class before they are done in writing the making of gross errors will be minimized and the danger of learning wrong forms of language reduced.

Occasional dictations of short passages from work studied in class and the learning by heart of very short, carefully chosen passages can be of great value in the latter half of the first two-year period.

The third and subsequent years constitute what we may call the reading book stage. Short pronunciation exercises and a certain amount of oral question and answer work should still find a place in the daily lesson.

All pupils in their third year will be embarked on a comprehensive course of silent reading in which enjoyment of the matter rather than the study of the language is the prime objective. A number of readers made up of interesting stories, written in vocabularies of progressive degrees of difficulty are available for the purpose of training pupils in rapid silent reading and leading them ultimately to the reading of simple French books in the unmodified language in which they were written. The effectiveness of the pupils' progress in reading should be checked by short comprehensive tests by question and answer.

The so-called non-linguistic child will have carried out a valuable course of study if he never goes beyond the programme outlined above, provided the work has been carried out systematically and thoroughly.

For the more linguistically-minded child the second part of the programme should have a



“ *Si on veut connaître la vraie France,
il faut aller visiter le paysan français.* ”

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well-devised 'course' as its backbone. This must be supplemented by a somewhat more ambitious scheme of silent reading and must include the intensive study of a limited number of short modern works of distinct literary value. The 'course' should provide suitable materials for all the interdependent activities of full language study. Composition should almost to the end be guided and prepared orally before being written. The 'Essay' should be taboo. Subjects for original writing should be as concrete and as purposeful as possible. Compositions on real experiences and letters to real living people on topics of living interest are infinitely preferable to

discussion in writing of difficult and abstruse problems. Translation should not be undertaken until comparatively late in the course.

Throughout his studies the learner must be made to feel that what he is doing is interesting and worth while. If thorough mastery of materials easily within the scope of his abilities is achieved at every step he will have the most effective of all incentives to continued effort later on. The better and more experienced the teacher entrusted with the work of the first and most critical stage of the teaching the greater will be the possibility of securing this progressive mastery and sense of successful achievement.

Latin

J. A. Paterson

IN the last twenty years Latin has faced a period of crisis. Time-honoured methods of teaching the language have been discredited; its purpose and value have been questioned; it has largely lost any privileged position it ever held in the curriculum. Indeed, its presence even in a subordinate position has not passed unchallenged. And what has proved more baffling—because more difficult to combat—than either overt criticism or active hostility is the curious and widespread indifference to the claims alike of the Latinist and his opponent.

For all this the teacher of Latin must himself bear a large share of responsibility. It is idle to claim that the modern boy has fallen a victim to general paralysis of the linguistic and grammatical faculties. Nor is it any more convincing to argue that modern Society is the real culprit, that the increase of materialism has led to an exaltation of what is utilitarian and a corresponding eclipse of the intellectual values enshrined in such a subject as Latin. What has endangered the whole position of Latin has been this, that an outlook and a teaching technique which suited the pre-1914 school population was retained in the post-war years after the conditions of secondary education had undergone drastic change. Demos now began to send to the secondary school not

The High School of Glasgow

merely the docile, the studious, the bookish members of his progeny, but all and sundry; Latin teachers too long persisted in regarding the newcomers as they had regarded their far more clerkly and far less numerous predecessors, that is, as potential University entrants whose immediate interests were best served by grammar and linguistics. It was the function of the school to collect the dry bones; to breathe into them the spirit of life could be left to the Sixth Form and the University.

The result was a harvest of troubles. A surprising percentage of pupils showed utter inability or marked distaste for sustained osteological processes; many who neither sought nor envisaged a complete secondary course left after one, two, or three years with the settled conviction that Latin was an exceedingly arid, tedious and meaningless preoccupation with grammatical forms and outlandish words. Hence loud cries against the difficulty and uselessness of Latin; hence proposals to abolish it from the curriculum as a senseless survival of medievalism or to tolerate it for a select few of the more linguistically-gifted pupils; hence its removal from list after list of compulsory or highly-desirable subjects; hence, to the everlasting honour of a number of alert and progressive teachers, a revisal of aims and methods, a reorientation of outlook, new

and considered claims as to the place of Latin in the curriculum.

The process is still incomplete ; unanimity has not been reached on every point. The following, however, rests on a fairly solid consensus of opinion :

Latin possesses elements of interest and value for all pupils. These are of such importance as to entitle the subject to a place in the curriculum commensurate with that given to French or any other modern language. It should receive a full allowance of time ; it should be taken up early in the secondary course, preferably in the first year ; it should be taken up by all, or certainly, by as many as possible of the pupils ; all who begin the course should carry it on for two or in some cases three years, after which the further study of the subject may be restricted to those who show literary and linguistic bias.

Now, in that series of propositions there is much to startle and amaze many parents and not a few educationists. Let us consider what justification there is for what is claimed.

And first of all, what of the values which Latin possesses—those values upon which all our claims are based ? They may be formulated as follows :

(a) LINGUISTIC. Latin is of paramount importance for the study of language. Owing to its very nature it can impart, far more quickly, easily and clearly than the parent language, a knowledge of the great concepts such as person, tense, mood, voice, concord, which are the foundation of all language study and as necessary for the sure and conscious mastery of English as of any other tongue. From the first lesson Latin can and should be used to widen and deepen the pupil's English vocabulary. Nor is this merely a question of roots and derivatives ; it is a cultivation of taste and discrimination in the use of words, a growing sense of idiom and of *nuance*, an awakening to the wealth of what is too frequently dead metaphor in the mother tongue. The usefulness of Latin does not stop at English ; if the pupil is also studying French, the teacher of Latin must stress and illustrate the debt of the younger to the elder language.

(b) METHODIC. Latin is above all things a

logical and orderly language. In presentation it lends itself to, and indeed demands, clear, simple and systematic development. The straight course of a Roman road is not more impressive or more characteristic of the Roman mind than the straight lines of Latin syntax. In teaching every effort must be made to preserve this natural system and orderliness of the language. The elements of accidence should be presented in natural succession, neatly and schematically. For the pupil the mastery of a well-tabulated paradigm is far more than a step in the learning of a language ; it is a lesson in the organization of knowledge, in the bringing together of discrete particulars into one co-ordinated whole.

(c) HISTORIC. Latin is more than a language. In Scotland the Professor of Latin in a University is known as the Professor of Humanity. In every school every teacher of Latin should regard himself as a teacher of Humanity. To teach the Latin language is half his task, no more, no less. Half the value of his subject is left unrealized if he fails to impart a clear conception of Roman life, civilization and character ; to give the pupil some sense of Rome's importance as a major source of language, law and culture ; some awareness of the reality and significance of Tradition ; some consciousness of participation in a great inheritance.

At this stage one further question remains. Granted that Latin offers, or can be so taught as to offer, the above values, are these realized in anything short of a full four or five year course ? Is it not foolish waste of time and energy to begin a maximum number of pupils on a course which by no means all will complete ? No ; teachers are teachers, not diviners. It is impossible to tell with accuracy at the beginning of a first or even a second year which pupils will complete a full Latin course with success. On the other hand it is perfectly possible to shape the first two years of the course in such a way as to provide interest and elements of supreme value for all, while in no way neglecting the needs of those who shall become the Latin scholars of the upper school. The values have been discussed above ; it remains to consider by what methods they can be conveyed even in the earliest stages of the study.

In the First Year, and again in the Second, the amount of grammar attempted must be severely restricted. All that is rare or anomalous is to be discarded. For the First Year the declensions of nouns, adjectives, a few of the simplest personal pronouns, the indicative active and passive of the regular conjugations with the indicative of *esse* is enough; the Second Year will add the subjunctive and imperative moods, infinitives and participles, more pronouns, adverbs and numerals. In each year this minimum of grammar must be broken up into small and definite steps following one another in a natural and orderly way. Each step must be mastered; each must be adequately and interestingly exercised. Over the details of method there still rages much healthy controversy. In England and America there is a strong body of opinion in favour of learning the grammar through translation; in a given lesson the pupil first encounters a piece of Latin which he has to turn into English; he starts off, guesses what he does not know and when absolutely stuck is helped out by the teacher. After the passage has been gone through, new words, forms and syntactical elements are explained, exemplified and fixed. This may be called the heuristic method. In Scotland the general practice is different; the lesson begins with the learning of a small and definite piece of grammar and a vocabulary comprising anything from ten to twenty new words. When these elements are absolutely and thoroughly known the pupil comes to his exercises which are regarded rather as applications of the known than as fields for guesswork which in the nature of things cannot always at this stage be intelligent. Bold claims are made for the heuristic method. In time these will probably undergo modification. Unless in very skilful hands the method is too prone to produce nothing more than a nodding acquaintance with what must be known like the multiplication table if progress is to be sure and rapid. Again, this method does not remove the Chinese-puzzle complex which has wrought such harm in the translation of Latin into English. If in reading a piece of Latin the young beginner has perpetually to guess, if he has to appeal to the teacher, if he is constantly

encountering things outside his knowledge and experience, then sooner or later he is going to experience frustration and the temptation to regard Latin as unreasonably difficult. Certainly, the speed, zest and confidence with which pupils taught on the other method tackle a passage of Latin so composed as to contain nothing but known elements, is a revelation.

Whichever method be adopted, it is agreed that the chief exercise must be translation from Latin. In the work of the first two years all passages for translation must be made up; no Latin author has left anything that will serve our turn. Passages must be simple; by constant repetition of word and phrase they must exercise and recall what has gone before; finally, they must be of such interest and vitality as to make the pupil want to read them. One further point; the reading and translation lesson must never be allowed to become an exercise in mere parsing and analysis.

As the second line of our exercise-material, may come English sentences for translation into Latin. Let these, however, be few in number and exceedingly simple—simple enough to permit the pupil to regard absolute accuracy as not only possible but the natural thing to expect. Keep the sentences varied; draw freely on the vocabulary and idiom of daily life. And as a reserve line posted close to the sentences let there be a selection of other exercises as varied and ingenious as possible—changing of singulars to plural, of actives to passive, deduction of missing inflections, cross-word puzzles, acrostics, anything to excite surprise and interest.

So much for the linguistic teaching of the first two years. What of the historic values of the subject? Briefly, the method is this: each year's work should be built up and organized round some guiding principle. In the First Year we may take, for example, a sketch of Republican history plus some of the more personal and domestic aspects of Roman life such as the slaves, dress, the house, the schools. Then every application of the formal elements, every Latin passage we set, every English sentence we give, every photograph and illustration we admit to the class must be made a factor contributing its quota to the building up in the pupil's mind of some conception of

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Rome, of Roman life and character, of the continuity of history, of the past as interesting in itself and significant for the present—this being the thing which Latin can impart better than any other subject at this stage, and being furthermore a thing which is likely to endure and influence thought and conduct long after the formal elements of the language are forgotten.

In the later years of the course methods need not be fundamentally different, though naturally the literary and linguistic sides will receive more prominence. The Latin text, the separate grammar and the manual of composition will come into their own. But even here language will not be over-stressed ; in studying a text, style, quality, method, the literary and historical setting will all receive attention ; comprehension must extend to the matter as well as to the syntax. And something will be shown of the inter-relationship of literatures ; Virgil will illustrate and be illustrated by Milton and Tennyson, Livy and Tacitus by Macaulay, Terence by Goldsmith and Sheridan, Cicero by Burke.

We must be under no delusions. When

everything is done that can be done, Latin will remain for all an exacting, and for many a difficult, subject. That is in itself no reproach. If secondary education as a whole has been guilty of one sin more than another in the last twenty years it is that of seeking too consistently to provide soft paths to soft jobs. Difficulty is no reproach ; what is reprehensible is to ignore or complicate the difficulty. The normal child's first difficulty in Latin is the mastery of the accidence. Methods of overcoming that have already been indicated—take it in small and systematic steps, learn each step thoroughly, exercise it interestingly and keep it fresh by repetition. The second difficulty is vocabulary. Here again the cure is small doses, plenty of drill, abundant repetition, interesting exercise and linkage, whenever possible, with the mother tongue. The third difficulty is the strange order of words and great length of sentences in Latin. This can be met in the early years by care and skill in the composition of the Latin passages employed, in the later years by an advance survey in class of the passage of a Latin author which is to be

prepared as homework by the pupil. To finish a chapter of Cæsar or Cicero at the end of the period and then issue the bald instruction to prepare the next chapter for next day, is still a common proceeding. It is none the less a crime against both Latin and commonsense.

In conclusion it must be remembered that if Latin does confront the normal child with those difficulties, if it is exacting in its demands on care and attention, it brings the normal learner correspondingly great satisfactions. Apart from the realization that he can do

decently in a subject which is generally regarded as hard, there is, under enlightened teaching, the stimulus to and satisfaction of curiosity ; there is the sense of mastery of words ; there is the feeling of mental well-being which comes from the healthy exercise of the faculties ; there is the sense of a growing power to see through things ; there is the delight of seeing relations between the new and the old, between what is strange and what is familiar ; there is the dawning consciousness of a rich and varied and very old mental and spiritual heritage.

Clear Civic Thinking

Denys Thompson

English Master, Gresham's School, Holt ;
Editor, 'English in Schools'

I AM asked to write on my 'approach to clear civic thinking'. There is no patent in it, and it is being devised independently and used more effectively by scores of other teachers. Briefly it is to follow up the implications for teaching method of the work of such writers as Norman Angell and R. H. Thouless and others ; to bring 'academic' education to bear upon everyday problems ; to offer those pupils capable of profiting from it a technique of reading.

A universal ability to read, accompanied by general illiteracy. A huge electorate with money to spend and votes to catch. A venal press which can be used not so much to influence public opinion as to abolish it. This is the situation the teacher has to meet. Just as he has to evolve training in traffic sense to protect the child's body against its own impulsiveness and the careless driver, so he must equip its mind against credulity, news-print and the careful propagandist. Once perhaps it was possible to impart a good education by exposing children to the 'right' influences and books : no such natural development is possible now. What was once a matter of growth is to-day a question of calculation. The teachers have to be more conscious of what they are attempting ; and one of their aims is to put the pupil into vital relationship with his environment. This means that when a child leaves school he should be

far more conscious than any of his ancestors were at the same age. The developed adult to-day is more conscious than the educated contemporary of Gibbon—a change which can be seen in the novel, if we compare *Tom Jones* with *To the Lighthouse*.

Without assuming either that our present mass-democracy is perfectible or that it is a total failure, one may assert that our present plight is in some measure due to the incapacity of the masses to get wisdom, to apply knowledge, to read print with understanding. One need only cite the continued popularity of the daily and Sunday papers which for years invited us to share their admiration for Hit and Muss. Their readers do not demand that the controllers of such papers should be interned for leading them up the garden path. They accept instead the invitation to go for another stroll. The press again is partly responsible for the fact that many of us employ words and hence ways of thinking that are hopelessly irrelevant to the facts, to the situations to which they are meant to apply. Mentally we try to crank cars with watchkeys. For instance in a world the nations of which are dependent on each other for their security we find persisting many tribal habits of thought—fallacies and delusions of the kind analysed in *The Unseen Assassins*. And when the demos chooses its policy and rulers, it goes to the poll with a mind conditioned by years of advertising

—a form of manipulation governed by maxims most strikingly similar to those of Hitler's propaganda.

Against all this something can be done by a verbal education directed to clear and relevant thinking. Of course there are plenty of people who lose, or never possess, the ability and will needed to think in this way. How to strengthen the will to make right choices and decisions lies rather outside the scope of these notes. One obstacle clearly is the conditions under which the majority work and live, conditions which will not be transformed without the impulses of religion or patriotism. By patriotism is not meant the travesty which flourishes in war time as the justification for uncivilised and destructive behaviour. The patriotism which education should foster is a pride in the country's achievements in literature, art (from cathedrals to the harmonies of the countryside) and in the liberties won by the Lilburnes and Cobbetts. Education will not encourage self-satisfaction but the will to preserve and develop. And since I have mentioned patriotism it should be added that training in clear thinking, in the way words work upon us, will enable pupils to evaluate for themselves the various incitements to patriotic fervour they are likely to meet.

I don't think that in my ideal school there would be any period or subject devoted to clear civic thinking. Rather, the usual 'subjects' would be taught, not by specialists imparting their specialisms for examination purposes, but by citizens who know how their subjects bear upon the problems which face pupils after leaving school. It is partly a matter of seeing connections. Every subject is at times an occasion for promoting 'clear civic thinking'. Chemistry is an opportunity for testing practically the claims of advertisers. The method of the D.I.A. *Cautionary Guides*, which make excellent text-books, can be applied in art. Latin is out of fashion, but the English language is a preciser tool in the hands of those who have dug at its Latin roots. In this fostering of an exact use of words History links up with English, when we examine the relevance and purpose of words used by sets of propagandists with opposed views about the present war, such as 'Crusade', 'a second

Gallipoli' (of Norway) ; or when, with the aid perhaps of Fyfe's *Illusion of National Character*, we test the appropriateness of thinking of nations in terms of persons.

As an example of what can be attempted at quite an early stage the following question set in the Common Entrance Examination is quoted :

These three statements deal with the same subject, but each is written in a different manner and for a different purpose. Read them through, and then answer the questions below them :

(a) The Allies' blockade of Germany aims at preventing the Germans from importing any material which might enable them to carry on the war.

(b) Every ship we can build, every man we can enlist for service on the seas, will help in our supreme effort to withhold from our enemy the very food which nourishes his martial energies.

(c) Unable to succeed by facing us man to man in fair fight, the English and French base their hopes of victory on withholding the necessities of life from our women and children.

1. State as clearly as you can the *purpose* of each of the three statements.

2. From statements (b) and (c) choose words or phrases which make their purpose clear.

At the same stage work on advertisements (re-writing, comparison, analysis) can be started, using examples, manufactured if necessary, which deal with products—such as mechanical toys and stamps—within the range of children's interests. There are some excellent suggestions in a pamphlet *Education for Democracy* which Bertrand Russell did for the Association for Education in Citizenship, mostly reprinted in his *Power*. At the S.C. stage the comparison of two newspapers with the aid of a questionnaire designed, not to produce the 'right' results, but to save waste of time on trivialities, is an exercise which

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covers much of the ground required in English. It provides a pupil with practice in setting out material collected in first-hand research, it engages his interests, it supplies ideas and an angle of approach for future work. And it makes him aware of the professional seducers.

A criticism I have heard is that such teaching produces cynicism, mere negative de-bunking. I can only say that is not so in my experience. The clear civic thinking I have in mind aims at equipping the pupil with some standards of judgment and with an approach enabling him to test for himself the validity of political and propagandist utterances. Through their words we can get a good idea of the extent to which we can rely on our statesmen. The layman cannot judge for himself the merits of writers on economics: but he can decide whether

the economists mix their feelings with their reasonings, whether they have anything to conceal, whether they are clear and consistent in their own fields. Cobbett's diagnosis is as apt as ever:

The bad writing, on which I am about to remark, I do not pretend to look on as the *cause* of the present public calamities, or of any part of them; but it is a proof of a *deficiency in that sort of talent* which appears to me to be necessary in men entrusted with great affairs. He who writes badly thinks badly. Confusedness in words can proceed from nothing but confusedness in the thoughts which give rise to them. These things may be of trifling importance when the actors move in private life; but, when the happiness of millions of men is at stake, they are of importance not easily to be described.

Quoted in Mary Palmer's *Writing and Action*.

The Teaching of English Composition

F. J. Schonell

Lecturer in Educational Psychology,
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IT is not uncommon for teachers to assert that composition is the subject which they find most difficult to teach. To some extent this arises from the intrinsic requirements of the subject, depending as it does upon all aspects of English—vocabulary, sentence structure, grammatical construction, spelling, and upon temperament, general intelligence, variety of experiences and literary background of the pupils, but it is also due to the fact that composition, oral and written, is too often considered as a specific subject to be taught and tested during set periods. This attitude overlooks the fact that composition is the most important manifestation of the child's attempt to express himself. It is a means of expression which enters into all school subjects and which is an individual's greatest asset in everyday life.

For these reasons we should be clear about our objectives and should know the most effective method by which we can attain them. In oral and written English psychological knowledge of the pupil's mental outlook and

of careful classroom studies must replace vague conjectures and haphazard methods. The curriculum in English must be integrated; it must reveal cohesion and continuity. Too often this is not the case, and we find an attempt is made at speech training in one lesson, some ineffective English exercises are given in another, a little misunderstood grammar is taken in the next, a written theme is hastily completed or perhaps half completed in a fourth lesson and so on. The efforts lack unity of purpose and the material is not infrequently artificial, unrelated from lesson to lesson and unconnected with the experiences of the pupils. If we are to succeed in our endeavour for more and better English, both written and spoken, we must aim at making the various aspects of the subject cling together as related parts of an intelligible whole; we must select experiences intimately connected with the life and needs of the pupils, and we must appreciate the exact proportionate values of the different elements which are included

in the English curriculum. Furthermore, we must use the teaching methods best suited to achieve maximum progress with pupils of different intellectual calibres and we should know the standards expected and the characteristics displayed from age group to age group.

Oral Composition

To be successful the work in oral composition should have five values—it should form a basis for written work, it should provide information, it should aid in the development of language technique, it should extend vocabulary and provide an expressional situation for the development of personality. To achieve these aims the teacher must provide pupils with experiences, direct and indirect, that will form a foundation for expression—the oral composition lessons should embrace numerous situations of a varied and comprehensive kind. Examples of varied situations likely to stimulate oral expression are as follows :

- (1) Talks about pictures—use 3 or 4 pictures per lesson.
- (2) Making picture books—cutting and pasting pictures into books ; talks about them.
- (3) Talks on films.
- (4) Stories retold.
- (5) Conversation groups—groups of pupils with leaders—topics connected with home experiences.
- (6) Word box—each pupil selects a word from a box containing names of everyday topics ; he speaks for 2 minutes.
- (7) 15 minute question time. Pupils ask questions of three pupils in front of the class. Selected pupils provide answers to all unanswered questions at the next meeting.
- (8) Giving and following directions. All members of the class follow, by drawing and writing, directions given by the teacher.¹
- (9) Telling simple jokes or recounting adventures (e.g. 'The Greatest Surprise I Have Ever Had'). Use preparation.
- (10) Guessing. Descriptions of well-known people. Puzzles of the 'What am I ?' 'Who am I ?' type.
- (11) Dramatization of stories, history, literature, etc.
- (12) Descriptions of actions or experiments performed in front of the class.
- (13) Telephoning. Allow groups to make papier maché telephones ; these are used by groups for interesting and useful oral work.
- (14) Lecturettes prepared by pupils on their hobbies or interests.

(15) Educational visits and actuality work² connected with the visits.

(16) Talks on 'interest books'. Each pupil makes a book on some topic (e.g. 'Hop Growing', 'Bee Keeping', 'Making Films'), and then talks about it.

These are only a few of the numerous ways that variety, interest and an audience situation can be added to the lessons in oral English. Moreover the discerning teacher will see how modification can be made for dull pupils, and how reading, oral work and written English can be intelligently combined. Errors in oral English are best corrected sparingly and according to a systematic plan. Common errors can be listed according to frequency and eliminated in this order.

Of primary importance, however, is the personality development associated with oral work. Speaking to others is an important factor in the development of personality and the teacher can, by a scientific programme in oral English, aid most markedly in producing balanced individuals able to converse freely and unemotionally in a variety of situations.

Written Composition

In written, as in oral composition, the vital factors are the interest of the topic for the pupils and the stimulus or audience situation connected with the composition. In written work pupils are too often asked to carry out tasks which are uninteresting and motiveless. Here we can make use of research results. The self-chosen topics most favoured by junior pupils (ages 7, 8, 9 years) are :

- (a) personal experiences.
- (b) seasonal happenings (Guy Fawkes' Day, Christmas Day, etc.).
- (c) stories read or told.
- (d) play experiences.
- (e) about other children.
- (f) about adults.
- (g) animals (pets and wild animal stories).
- (h) fanciful characters.

We should formulate requests for different compositions on these topics in such a way that they make a personal appeal or a real contact with experience, thus :

¹ See *The Use of Diagrams in the Teaching of English*, M. M. Lewis. (Ginn & Co.)

² See *Actuality in Schools*, G. J. Cons and C. Fletcher. (Methuen & Co.)

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Tell me about your cat.

Write six lines about your best friend.

How I collect stamps.

Do not always expect a long composition from children ; much useful work arises from short compositions.

For senior pupils my own research shows that the best liked topics are those dealing with :

- (a) personal experiences.
- (b) travel.
- (c) outdoor activities.
- (d) athletics and sports.
- (e) literature.
- (f) animals, particularly stories about them.
- (g) hobbies and how to do certain things.
- (h) current events.
- (i) autobiographies and stories of famous people.
- (j) imaginative happenings.

It is indicative that the reasons given by both juniors and seniors for their choice of topics is that they liked the topic they chose, they had some knowledge about it or they expected or hoped to see or do things they wrote about ; in other words the composition,

like other forms of expression, represented a mild form of wish fulfilment.

Range of Written English

It is a common occurrence to find in any one class a range of three, four, or even five years in the ability of written English displayed by the pupils. For example, in a recent investigation I found numerous instances in the same class of widely divergent English levels which paralleled these :

Composition on Home—Time 30 minutes :

Jim, aged 8 yrs. 9 mths.

'Me Dad gos to work all the family gos to work set one of them thas my big brother my mother cooks my binner.'
(24 words).

Joan, aged 8 yrs. 9 mths.

'Our home is very cosy although it is poor. Mother and father work hard to keep it tidy. Father is always trying to invent something new. He made a safe not long ago. Once when nothing to do he even made a dolls-house with a dresser and cup-board under-neath. Soon after a dolls-cot almost as large as a babies. While mumsy (that is the nickname my sister gave her) sits and machines, knits and of course does all the house-work. Pat and I help her when ever we can we think it great fun. We are always busy what with either poetry, plays, sometimes we find time to knit. My sister is only four years old and she makes us roar with laughter when we are round the fire on Sunday. . . .'
(216 words).

Both compositions were the product of 30 minutes' work, but whereas the former does not reach average 7-year-old level, the latter is comparable with compositions of pupils mentally aged 12 to 13 years.

There are many classes containing pupils like Jim who cannot write a simple sentence. They lack ideas and possess a pitifully inadequate technique for expressing the few thoughts they do entertain. A small number of such pupils are found alongside pupils like Joan, whose power of written expression is better than many adults'. Yet we find not hundreds but thousands of classes containing pupils of similar widely ranged abilities all doing exactly the same written English, all attempting the same compositions, all doing the same exercises in punctuation, grammatical usage, word study, and so on. Often the work

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is too difficult for the Jims—they struggle blindly and hopelessly along ; while for the Joans it is a sheer waste of time—they have already used in their written work all the forms of punctuation, grammatical usage, etc., that the very exercises, to which they are submitted, are designed to correct. Yet the solution is obvious. The class should be so sectioned as to make it possible to differentiate the work required by groups of pupils of different abilities. The most practical plan is to divide the class into three sections, for which purpose the use of a diagnostic English test¹ is invaluable, as it yields quickly and accurately comprehensive information of the pupils' English abilities.

- Section A—pupils whose written English is very good, both in ideas and in technique (3 to 6 pupils).
- Section B—pupils who require help in either the creative or the technical aspects of written English (20 to 25 pupils).
- Section C—pupils whose written English is very weak in both expressional and mechanical aspects (3 to 6 pupils).

Section A need plenty of stimulating opportunities for giving expression to their creative literary abilities,² for expanding their vocabularies and for acquiring information. Group studies such as writing a book, a brief history of the town, the compilation of a travel book, are suitable.

Group B require exercises of different kinds, while for Section C the need for a far simpler, much more carefully ordered approach through

¹ See *Schonell Diagnostic English Tests*. Five tests embracing composition, sentence structure, punctuation, English usage and vocabulary. Compiled by F. E. Schonell. (Oliver & Boyd, Ltd.)
² For senior pupils of this calibre see an excellent book, *Methods and Models in Composition*, T. Henderson and R. D. Thomson. (Oliver & Boyd, Ltd.)

pictures and activities to build up simple sentence structures is all too obvious.

Marking

In marking the written compositions of pupils, three considerations should influence us. Firstly, in order to maintain the pupil's self-confidence it is essential to give fair appraisal of his work in the light of his intellectual powers. Secondly, the marking should be diagnostic as well as assessive and, thirdly, the written compositions should be marked so that a correct balance is maintained between the creative and the mechanical elements of the work. The content or thought aspects of a composition should receive correct appraisal even if the structural and mechanical aspects are weak. Composition is an expressional activity, not merely a verbal exercise, and by laying disproportionate stress upon mechanical aspects we inhibit the pupils' creative powers. To some extent the above aims and precautions are maintained if we use, occasionally, a marking schedule. The following is one I have found useful :

A—THOUGHT OR CONTENT				
1. Clearness and Continuity of Thought	}	12 marks		
2. Originality of Ideas				
3. Power of description (interesting or uninteresting material) . .				
4. Use of words				
B—STRUCTURE				
5. Variety of Sentence	}	7 marks		
6. Paragraphing and General Unity.				
7. Correctness and General Unity .				
C—MECHANICS				
8. Spelling	}	6 marks		
9. Punctuation				
10. Grammatical Errors. . . .				
<i>Total Marks 25.</i>				

This enables the teacher and pupils to see more clearly the merits and the deficiencies in the composition and to plan remedial work accordingly.

Correction

Finally, a word about correction in composition, the nature of which has at times an important influence on the quantity and quality of the work. The guiding principle should be to base all correction on a plan of development, correcting each time only a few errors. For example, with some pupils we might be aiming only at obtaining capital letters at the opening of, and full stops at the end of, sentences, while at another time the object might be to improve sentence structure. Pupils are dismayed and confused to find their papers covered with

indications of the inaccuracy of their efforts. Furthermore, there should be, at times, positive marking—ticks or stars for good sentences or well-selected words are a great incentive for further effort.

Space precludes one from going into all the related points about written English, the development of sentence structure, sequence of ideas, the values of letter writing, age group characteristics in written English and lists of common errors, but sufficient has been written to indicate that a psychological approach based on clearly defined objectives attained by modern teaching methods which consider the individual needs of the pupils yields better results than hit and miss methods of a more formal kind.

Teaching Children to Create Music

Henry Cowell

**Composer and Music Teacher,
U.S.A.**

IN many progressive schools a consistent effort is being made to encourage creativeness in the fine arts, and to aid children of public school age to express themselves in media of colour and sound.

I have had the good fun of gathering together several groups of children in different schools, and getting them started in composing music ; and I shall describe some of the ways employed in these experiments presently.

Experience with child groups ranging in age from four years old to fifteen or sixteen in schools both in the state of New York and that of California, convinces me that if the matter is approached well by the teacher, practically all children are interested. Nearly all of them can make a surprisingly good showing, producing something which is at least of enough value for them to be proud of it, and which sounds well, and yet which is not made through the teacher's hampering the creativeness of the student by trying to force certain particular results. Where the results are not good, it is almost always the fault of the teacher, or of

some inhibition caused by previous training elsewhere.

Most teachers are not practising creators in the field of music, and they can hardly be blamed if they do not know enough technically about creating music to present the matter in the best manner. On the other hand, most musical composers either are not available to teach children, or else they don't know how to teach. This is the situation which results in a rather vague presentation of creative music in the schools. The teachers, who are delighted at the idea of sponsoring creativeness, have but a hazy idea of what the creative process consists in ; and being unable themselves to create, they do not give confidence to those they are trying to help. •

Some teachers of creative music give the child entirely free rein for fear of hampering the 'inspiration'. The result is nearly always formless and spotty, even at best ; and the lack of aid does not make for strengthening the creative interest. Other teachers go to the opposite extreme of setting a four-measure or

eight-measure space, with certain pre-defined cadences to end on, and give the so-called 'active-tone tendency' of each scale note, with the demand that it be followed. This sort of teacher is so determined to attain a certain result that he often refuses to accept the child's own product, but instead makes the child guess one note after another until it finally hits on the one the teacher had in mind, and this is the only one which the latter will accept. Obviously, this cannot be called 'creative'. Still another way is to play a lot of music for the children, and then afterwards try to get them to imitate, or write something a bit like what they have heard. Here, however, the children do the obvious thing—that is, they simply produce snatches of first one thing and then another from amongst those they have heard. However, this process has some advantages over the other ones. The child is at least in the atmosphere of perfected creations, and this is to some extent necessary; for no one can create with no objective ahead, and no child can be expected to be a great enough genius to know the objective of good music without hearing a lot of it.

The best atmosphere in which to work at anything creative is that of a studio where this work is the natural thing to be doing, and where others are also at work. The teacher teaches creative music by creating it himself as he teaches, showing how he does it, what the problems are and how he is solving them. He shows the students what materials they may use, and suggests that they work along with him. It is done in a spirit of its all being really very good fun and exciting to produce something that sounds good, of one's own. It is much the same sort of thing to build a musical structure as an architectural one of blocks, and the musical materials which will be used can be isolated and treated almost as though they were physical building materials. In order to achieve good results, the teacher should limit these materials quite strictly—just as one would build with only a limited number of different sorts of blocks. It is much healthier at the beginning to avoid entirely all questions of what music means, or what one is saying by means of music. No one can form a sentence with meaning before he knows a

word; after the child can put together a few simple musical materials, he may wish to express something with them; but always to try to form extra-musical associations with sounds, results in a sentimental viewpoint toward music, and in forming false associations with sounds. (I know of two certain grown-ups who always think of a teddy-bear when they hear the interval of a third, because in early childhood their teacher told them it meant that in a certain piece they played.) It also results in the child's never developing a sense of the values contained in musical qualities themselves—such things as melody, rhythm, etc., can give great joy if their subtleties and beauties are appreciated, but any such appreciation is made more difficult by injecting too much extraneous material. It is very tempting to teach small children by means of extra-musical associations, as the teaching is made easier. But the knowing teacher can win as great an interest right from the start in the essences of music itself, and with far more valuable results to the child's development in the long run.

Because a beginner at anything is apt to be timid, and particularly because there is lots of nonsense current about how only a musical genius can compose music, much encouragement is needed to get the child started at composing. Hence the ground should be prepared carefully so that the child will produce something satisfactory no matter in what way he decides to use the musical materials you present to him to work with. He must make his own absolutely free choice, with no prompting. But the materials he uses must be selected for him, and presented so that any choice will result in something praiseworthy. Then he will not be discouraged through making something which is self-evidently poor at the very start. It may be complained that to select the materials is too great a restriction on the creative faculty. I don't think so. It *aids* the creative process.

What is the creative process?

It consists to a great extent in making choices.

If one is confronted with making a choice from the vastness of all the potentialities of sound and rhythm—to choose one thing from among billions of possibilities—the difficulty is almost insurmountable. On the other hand, if

one is asked to decide whether to take one or the other of two different intervals of sound in a certain place, both of the possibilities being played, it is an easy matter to say, 'I'll take this one !' Now, it may not be easier to choose the *best* of two different possibilities, but it is surely easier to make some sort of a choice. Even if one has to choose one out of three possibilities, it is not so hard ; but the larger the number of things to choose from, the more skilled the chooser has to be. However, even to choose one's preference from two possibilities is to exercise the creative faculty, which through such exercise will grow stronger. In order to be creative it is not necessary that one of the two possibilities to choose from should be 'bad', the other 'good'. On the other hand, this situation if used in teaching results sometimes in imposing the teacher's taste as to which is bad or good, rather than to exercise the students' creative faculties. The choice, I reiterate, must be entirely free—there should be no sense of approval from the teacher of one choice, and of disapproval of the other ; as then children, who are very sensitive to such things, will simply try to please the teacher instead of choosing what they really want themselves.

Once a teacher gets the idea, however, it is not such a very great task to arrange that all the needed steps to make a complete little musical composition are presented to the students so that at each point the immediate problem resolves itself into making a choice between one of two things. According to the state of advancement of the student, and his age, the material may be presented in different ways. In the case of the very young child, the two things to be chosen from may be played by the teacher, who merely asks the child to select, and then notates the result. This leaves the child free to act with no impediment of difficult technical tasks in connection with making the choice.

On the other hand, in the case of older children who know notes and a bit of playing, they may be asked to select one from two things which they play themselves. In the case of still older ones, the selection may be made purely on paper through notes ; but this I feel can only be recommended if it is fairly certain that the students have had enough

musical experience to know the sound from reading the notes.

When I taught creative music I varied the method of approach each time I came into the classroom, so that there should never be a wearisome sense that the same old routine would be coming up again. I always created something myself, along with the children. For little ones I brought xylophones, recorders, and other easy-to-play instruments, on which it is easy to work out tunes. So far as possible, I helped ideas which sprang from the children instead of trying to make them accept mine. If they didn't know what to do, I aided ; if one of them had a good idea, and wanted to go ahead, I tried to further this. One little girl of nine years could think up a tune at any time, but she wanted to write songs, and couldn't get the connection with words, so we tried out word-making. One big boy said that he didn't want to have anything to do with the whole matter unless it was going to be of some use ; so we went into the matter of how we could use songs we wrote ourselves, and we decided to make a new song specially for each time the baseball team played. This was accomplished with great success—and each child had its composition performed by all the rest of the school in public. A great stimulus, and one to which even the greatest of composers have not shown themselves averse ! On the other hand, one little one wailed that she couldn't think what to do after deciding to start a tune on 'C'. So I suggested that she reduce the matter to making a choice—from 'C' one has to either take a higher note, or a lower note, or repeat the 'C'—that was the first choice. Then, after she decided to go up, I suggested that she might go up either a step to 'D', a small skip to 'E', or a larger skip to 'F'. She could find all these notes on the piano, so she solemnly tried over these three possibilities, and finally decided to take the small skip to 'E'. I then suggested that if she would repeat the same process again to choose a third note, after trying over the first two notes again to hear the relationship, she would have the beginning of a melody, or a 'motive'. She did this, and got hold of 'C', 'E', and 'D', which she liked ; I then started to try to aid her in getting started on the rhythmic problem,

telling her to try out having all the notes the same, or two shorts and a long one, or the reverse ; but it soon was evident that she didn't need any rhythmic aid to getting started, and she dashed off at a great rate, ending up with a completed tune. The question of whether to have regular or irregular numbers of measures and beats in tunes came up naturally, through someone's wondering about it rather than any set lecture on the subject ; and the same was true in regard to teaching how to invert and retrograde motives. All the class was vastly interested in the idea of using a motive as building matter, and getting new forms by such means as well as through sequences.

Sometimes the teaching and instruments must fit the particular circumstances. In a poor district of New York City there is the 'Greenwich Settlement House', and in another building the 'Greenwich Music School', which caters for poor children, and tries to keep them out of mischief. There was in this district a gang of young hoodlums aged from nine to thirteen. They were officially sent to the music school, but joined together in a vow never to be caught taking a music lesson. This, they felt, would be both sissified and out of keeping with all standards of tough boyhood. However, they ran wild through the halls of the music building, raising such a rumpus that it disrupted all the work there ; the head of the school was in a great dither—didn't know what to do. I offered to try what I could. The youngsters were willing enough to gather in a room, to see how I proposed to 'make' them study music, and of course were fully set to thwart any effort. However, I did not have any piano or violins or recorders in the room, which was bare of furnishings ; I came in, and

sat myself down on the floor in the centre of the group not paying the least attention to them. I had borrowed for the occasion a bunch of Haitian tribal drums, made of the toughest of hide stretched across a hollowed piece of tree trunk, and sounding a grand boom when hit with the large wooden hammers specially made for that purpose. The hides are attached to four pegs, and one tightens the hides by hammering in the pegs, preferably with a hefty rock. I had purposely slackened all the hides, and the first thing I did was to busy myself by pounding heavily on the pegs, and testing the drums to see whether the hides were tight enough yet. The boys watched, and of course they were itching to get at the drums, which fascinated them, but they were still a bit afraid that perhaps the drums had more to do with music than seemed to be the case ! After letting this go on a little while, I selected an older boy who seemed to be particularly tough-looking, with the idea that if he started the rest would follow. I said to him, 'Here, do take this thing, and hold it down while I pound the peg in—I can't seem to hold it right and get it hammered in too'—well, I suppose he figured that it could hardly be called a music lesson if he held a tree trunk while I pounded in a peg on it, so he came forward and held it. As soon as he had touched the drum, all the other boys with a wild yell pounced on all the other drums, and began beating on them for all they were worth and pandemonium reigned ! Then I got up and wrested the drums away—'The men who play these drums', I said, 'don't beat them just any old way, they play them like this—if you want to play them the way Indians do I'll show you how'. They were lost. The music lessons had started !

The Teaching of Art

Evelyn Gibbs

Lecturer in Art,
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No subject in the school curriculum has undergone such a fundamental change of outlook as the teaching of art, and many teachers whose standards in art are those

which were developed by the old academic training find it difficult to understand the new outlook, and more difficult still to understand and appreciate the creative qualities in the

children's work, and to see the importance of the new approach as an essential part of the child's development.

Why should we encourage children to express their ideas in terms of colour and design, through imaginative painting and pattern-making, and try to give them opportunities to create through different materials; to embroider, print fabrics, and experiment in making furniture, books, woven materials, pottery, and all the various crafts which should be practised in schools? Few of the children will be practising artists in after-school life, and most of the crafts they do in school, they will not need to practise afterwards, for machine production will supply their everyday needs, and in most cases their chosen vocation will absorb any free time they might give to such work. In the past, and in many schools to-day, it is probably true to say that if the children were given opportunities to do any painting or craft work the primary aim was a training in technique. Art lessons consisted of a process of learning a certain number of imposed rules and theories which the child was often not ready to grasp, the child's development was not considered, the child's own conception discouraged and the adult's 'grown up', dull view of the appearance of things imposed instead. The results of this kind of teaching can be seen reflected in the general lack of understanding and interest in matters relating to art, not only in relation to pictures, but in everyday things; the design of furniture, fabrics, houses, in the appearance of our towns with their ugly hoardings, in the cinema and theatre, all the many things for which we need discrimination and judgment and sensibility if we are to enjoy that which is beautiful and has meaning, and be able to select the good from the counterfeit. No rules or theories can help in selecting material for curtains for a room, for they must be considered in relation to the room for which they are to be chosen, and this involves individual problems and taste. And in considering and appreciating the work of an artist no preconceived or dogmatic ideas about painting can be relied on, for the artist has something fresh and individual to give which must be considered as carefully as one would read a book. This will

be appreciated as a more mature understanding develops, if the interest to search out the meaning is there, and provided the approach is open-minded and not set in water-tight compartments. The old methods of teaching put art into compartments, stressed technique, imposed a limited vision, ignored the more fundamental creative aspect of painting and craftwork, and had no relation to the development of the child as an individual or as an artist, and the growth of a sound appreciation of art.

This appreciation and interest in art cannot be measured or imposed, it can only be brought out and developed through the child's own experience. The child will gain some insight and understanding of art by working as an artist, and by discovering and solving his problems through his own creative effort, no matter how crude or limited that effort may be. Every child has some artistic ability and a certain native taste which can be brought out, but can just as easily be stifled by environment or by false standards imposed through bad teaching. The unconscious æsthetic qualities in children's early spontaneous paintings are often lost because the teacher does not realize their value, and the emphasis is laid on correct drawing and technique, or the child is left to flounder. The aim of the teacher is to retain and develop individual and creative qualities in the child's work, and at the same time find methods which will help him with his growing need for technique, and with problems and difficulties which he will discover through his experience and at his own pace. By the time the child reaches adolescence he will be working not only emotionally, but intellectually. He will be much more conscious of *how* he is achieving the expression of his ideas. It is this conscious effort which is the ultimate aim of art teaching; the child should have developed his ability not only to create, but to recognize the creative qualities in his own work, for from the realization of these qualities in his own work and that of other children he will look for and enjoy the finest qualities in the work of artists and craftsmen, and be able to select the good from the bad productions of the machine. This appreciation can only grow gradually, but the foundations can be laid at

school and through the interest thus created should go on developing afterwards.

The independence and reliance on his own powers which this attitude towards teaching must create has obviously great value in the development of the child's personality. It will build up confidence and judgment and will help the child to tackle other problems in the same spirit of independence.

There is a tendency for teachers to feel that the modern approach to art teaching has no underlying plan and that there is no constructive scheme behind the teaching. So often it appears to be thought that the new methods simply mean supplying the children with plenty of bright colour and large pieces of paper and encouraging them to 'express themselves' by painting pictures, the teacher merely needing the ability to sympathize and encourage. To the visitor to schools where work on modern lines is encouraged, it may appear as simple as this, and the observer may think that the teacher plays no part in the releasing of the child's ideas, and that the work consists entirely of imaginative painting varied with occasional periods of pattern-making. Clearly, sympathy and encouragement are as important in this as in any teaching, but so also is a realization of the aims which lie behind the teacher's planning of the work throughout the school. The teacher must know just as clearly as in any subject the aim of each piece of work the child is encouraged to undertake and its place in the general development of the child's creative ability. A criticism of the results of the modern approach to art teaching is that there so often appears to be little development in the children's work both technically and creatively, specially in the senior school, and this criticism is usually well justified if the teacher does not realize the link between pattern-making and imaginative painting and the value of their relation to craft-work and other subjects.

There is an obvious relationship between picture-making and pattern-making—a picture relies very largely on its design qualities. A child instinctively feels, at an early age, the value of the arrangement of the shapes in his picture and this quality is an important one to develop. Picture-making is a form of pattern-making. Abstract pattern-making—all over

repeating patterns by means of potato-block printing, free brush strokes, masked stencils, cut paper shapes, a variety of media of this kind will not only bring out the child's sense of arrangement and feeling for colour, so vital for the expression of his ideas, but will help him to acquire, naturally, the technique which he needs and will give him opportunities to experiment with colour and a variety of textures. This experience will be used in imaginative painting, unconsciously at first, later with a full realization of its value. The careful balancing of picture-making and pattern-making so that imagination and technique are growing side by side is very important if development in the child's work is to be achieved.

Imagination will not necessarily develop without some guidance by the teacher, and without an understanding of the way in which a child expresses what he sees and feels, and a grasp of the difference between this interpretation and the adult way of seeing things. Children's drawing has a definite and consistent character of its own. The child's early paintings show no attempt to express his ideas realistically. He is quite content to interpret symbolically. 'The child draws what he knows rather than what he sees'. This symbolic drawing gradually becomes much more related to reality as his understanding and experience widens. The development towards a realistic conception is a very slow process, the transition stage being usually at the junior school stage, and even in the senior school children's paintings often show characteristics of the symbolic period mixed with a more mature observation. Teachers often worry about the 'childish' drawing which persists and try to hasten the development by imposing other adult formulas. This only hampers the natural and individual development and destroys the confidence and freedom of the child's approach, bringing up problems which would otherwise have been tackled quite naturally, as the child was ready to grasp them.

In the infant school when the child is still developing his formula for drawing the teacher will find little suggestion for the subject of the child's imaginative painting is necessary, much of the subject matter will come naturally from

some project or centre of interest, but in the junior and senior school it is often valuable to set the children working on a similar theme or even set definite subjects to help them to discover definite possibilities in composition which they need to grasp. At the same time though the teacher may suggest a subject which he thinks will interest the child, he should not impose his own adult conception, but should try to stimulate the child's own powers of visualizing a picture—helping him to pick out the important images and to express the idea simply and boldly. No rules can be given nor concrete methods explained, for each teacher will find his own methods. These depend on the children, their age, previous experience and, of course, largely on their every-day activities and local surroundings. By imagination we do not necessarily mean fantasy, but more often an interpretation of everyday life, this is the stimulus to the imagination, and forms endless and ever-changing material for picture-making. So often imaginative painting in schools develops into illustration of poems or fairy tales. Unless subjects such as these are presented with great care the picture in the child's mind will often be influenced by other pictures he has seen and instead of expressing his own conception based on a real experience which has personal significance, he will build his idea on somebody else's picture.

All the freedom and imagination which is developed through picture-making and pattern-making should be balanced by the more concrete craft-work. It is important that all craft-work should be approached with the same spirit of freedom and spontaneity. It is more important to develop a feeling for the right use of each material and to consider how

the design and shape is influenced by the medium than to emphasize finish and skill. If the craft is suitable for the age of the children the technique should not need to be unduly emphasized, and the selection of a suitable craft in relation to the child's development is very important. Lino-block printing on fabric, an example of a craft which is very important in developing the child's taste in colour and texture, depends for its quality not only on the ability to create good pattern, but on the technique of printing; and if the child is not ready to master this technique without undue emphasis, the aim of printing fabrics is not achieved, and the appreciation of the beauty of a well-printed and designed fabric will be lost. Fabric printing is a senior school craft, and it is only in the senior school that it can be carried through and used practically, the children at that age being capable of making up their materials in the needlework and hand-work lessons. Similarly glove puppetry is a suitable craft for juniors for it does not demand great manipulative powers, and will lay the foundations of interest and appreciation for more advanced puppetry in the senior school. Bookbinding, which depends on a certain accuracy as well as good design and colour is a senior school craft—the pattern-making in the junior school laying the foundations for a free approach in the senior school. It is by the careful planning and balancing of imaginative painting, pattern-making, and crafts such as these, that the child will develop both imaginatively and technically and will get the training he needs if he is to develop an interest and appreciation in all matters relating to art, not only in relation to pictures but in everyday things.

Book Reviews

The Innumerable Instincts of Man. By Claude A. Claremont. (Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1940, 196 pp., 6/- net.)

The author of this book is co-Principal of the London Montessori Training College for Teachers. Its title might incorrectly suggest that it is merely another contribution to the controversy about human instincts which has raged since McDougall published his *Introduction to Social Psychology* rather more than twenty years ago. It is in truth more

than that. What is novel and interesting to the psychologist is that it is an account of human psychology as it appears to the Montessori teacher. One difference in that point of view is that the Montessori teacher is convinced that the number of original tendencies in the human mind is much more extensive than is commonly assumed. The child appears, for example, to have a tendency to build up in himself powers of co-ordinated movements which is the foundation of the acquirement of various skills. At certain ages the child seems to be driven

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to count or to perform arithmetical impulses. If we group all these tendencies which are of value to educators under the one heading of 'the instinct of curiosity', we are ignoring their specific character. The child who is curious about number relations at one age may be curious about something quite different at a later age. The study of such drives lying behind the educational process is the important contribution of the Montessori method to educational psychology.

The discussion of whether these tendencies are to be called 'instincts' or not would seem to be not particularly important. It is generally not possible to determine whether any tendency to behaviour is genuinely innate or whether and to what extent it is the result of the experiences of early childhood. Nor is this question of any practical importance. What matters is the reality of the drive when it appears, and the danger of ignoring the reality of many of the child's tendencies to act and think and learn by trying to reduce human behaviour to the effect of a small number of instincts.

Robert H. Thouless

The School Recorder Handbook. By
Edmund Priestley and Fred Fowler. (E. J.
Arnold and Son, 3/-.)

This attractively-produced volume comprises the two School Recorder Books together with certain introductory matter for teachers and some useful appendices giving lists of music which can be used to supplement the tunes given in the School Recorder Books.

The two School Recorder Books have already been reviewed in these columns (February and April 1940), so we shall here confine ourselves to the additional matter. This is concerned first of all with the method of teaching the subject in class, taking into account that such a class will probably begin by using a number of inexpensive descant recorders, reading from staff notation, not tonic sol-fa, but making use of the French time names wherever necessary.

In discussing the arrangement of the School Recorder Books, some useful hints on fingering are given and the teacher can turn to this section for advice on common faults to watch for in the class.

For the Appendices such books as the *National*

Song Book and the *New National and Folk Song Book* have been combed and their material classified and graded, so players need never be hard up for some tunes to play. Further lists include collections of pieces specially arranged for recorders; and here it may be remarked that, while a class may make shift by drawing on its song-books for its music, members of the class will stand a better chance of becoming good recorder players if they study chiefly music which has been specially edited for the recorder with all the necessary marks of phrasing and breathing. The nearest parallel to the school recorder band is the violin class, and music for such a class is always carefully marked with the necessary bowings, if only for the sake of uniformity in the ensemble. Recorder music for class use requires proper editing for the same reason, so it is important that wherever possible such editions should be used rather than vocal editions.

The importance of correct breathing is recognized in the music included in the School Recorder Books, but we think the slur (and consequently more variety of phrasing) should have been introduced at an earlier stage and not left for the last few pages of Part I—it would have made the music more interesting.

Edgar H. Hunt

Civic Arithmetic. By E. M. Rodgers, B.A.
(Three Books. 1/- each, cloth 2d. extra.
A. & C. Black Ltd.)

The Civic Arithmetic is based upon the 'Project Method', and one's judgment of the book will depend upon one's attitude to this method. Many good causes have reason to pray 'Save us from our friends' and much harm has been done to this as to other educational devices by the excessive claims of devotees who have lost all sense of relative value. The author of this series is not one of these. She asks not for the whole of the time allocated to Arithmetic but for *part* of it and most teachers will agree that in these circumstances projects may be a valuable asset. There appear to be two essential requisites:

1. That the Projects shall appeal to the children and not be imposed by the teacher.
2. That they shall provide opportunity for utilizing all the Arithmetical skills acquired in earlier lessons.

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These demands imply (a) the active co-operation of the pupils in suggesting Projects and (b) a very careful planning of the material so that all processes are repeatedly called into use and the various branches—fractions, decimals, money, weights and measures, areas, volumes, percentage, etc.—if *thought worthy of teaching*, receive due revision.

The book under consideration seems to be somewhat lacking in both these desiderata. The projects are mainly concerned with financial matters and some give clear evidence of their origin in the adult mind.

Perhaps in subsequent editions these matters

could be adjusted by including a supplement containing projects suggested by pupils. These would no doubt be broader in scope than those at present included and a little judicious editing would enable the necessary computations to cover a wide range of processes.

Obviously, the book is intended to *supplement* those already in use in a school and for this purpose it is very suitable. A little less wordiness in explanatory matter might have enabled the author to find space for an additional project, a provision which would have been appreciated by those using the book.

S. H. Cracknell

Letter to the Editor

To the Editor of 'The New Era'.

DEAR MADAM,

I have read with much interest the article on 'The Younger Juniors' published in your June number. I wish other teachers with such excellent powers of observing children would write and describe similar interesting situations as they find them in their classes, and make clear, as Miss Friend does, the questions to which they give rise. Many important problems would thus be ventilated and educationists would be encouraged to contribute from their experience towards their solution.

The questions which Miss Friend raises suggest to my mind two answers on which it would be valuable to have the opinion of psychologists and teachers.

It seems to me that the children have gained in one way and suffered in another by their exclusion from the top class in the infant school.

They have gained by escaping from exploitation as 'important and responsible' people, an idea which surely arises from the mere accident in their lives, which, by reason of our system of organization, has placed them at the top of the infant school, rather than from any indication in the nature of a seven-year-old that he is ready for such responsibility. By escaping from this false position he is spared the shock of having to adjust himself to its loss and the consequent feelings of resentment towards the older children when he meets them in the junior school. He is also spared from the need to adjust himself to

a 'grown up' position by relinquishing dolls and other childish things which still give him satisfaction. In any place where children can play freely without fear of criticism many children will play with dolls long after the age of eight has been passed.

On the other hand the children have missed much valuable experience in the infant school, the loss of which has retarded their development, whether permanently or temporarily, as Miss Friend says, time will show. Miss Friend describes children who are 'largely concerned with themselves, less concerned with the outside world, not particularly interested in new subjects, not particularly co-operative in handwork and showing every satisfaction with crude unfinished efforts'.

These are, as she says, 'infant' rather than 'junior' characteristics and their enumeration brings home to one's mind the great value of the experiences which the infant schools provide for their older as well as for their younger children.

Miss Friend does not refer to the children's physical condition. In poor districts I have noticed that the children's health has suffered as a result of deprivation of school.

Yours truly,

Dorothy E. M. Gardner
(Head of the Infant Education Department,
City of Leeds Training College).

Fellowship News

HEADQUARTERS NEWS

Readers will have been anxious about our fellow-members in Norway, Denmark, Holland, and Belgium. We regret to say that we have no news of any of them, nor any recent news of Dr. Zilliacus in Finland.

Up to the moment of going to press N.E.F. Headquarters is still in London. No one can tell what may happen, but if we have to evacuate we shall hope to remain accessible through the old

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

address. Though much of our work is in abeyance, we are finding opportunities for service in connection with refugees and others in distress. The staffs of the International, English Section, and the *New Era* meet once a week and are working in the closest co-operation.

We have received notes of vigorous activities in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America, which will be circularized to all our members this month.

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Directory of Schools—continued

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Directory of Schools—continued

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Editor—BEATRICE ENSOR

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NOW AND TOMORROW—I

H. G. Stead

Training Colleges

Education Officer, Chesterfield ;
Author of 'Full Stature'

IT is significant that in the midst of the present conflict the *New Era* should devote a special number to the Training Colleges of this country. If it is immediately essential that large numbers of young men of this country should be trained in destructive activities, it is still more essential that equal care and thought should be given to the training of those who must of necessity bear the burden of reconstruction. Upon those now entering our Training Colleges will fall the task of educating the young people of this country in such a way that they will pass unscathed through the

desert and enter upon the land so long promised but so difficult to reach, wherein mankind shall achieve some of its long-cherished dreams.

One of the most hopeful signs in discussions upon our Training Colleges lies in the fact that the criticism comes not only from without but also from within. The students are critical of themselves, or perhaps it would be more true to say critical of what they achieve while at College, and they believe that much more could and should be done to enable them to play their important part in the world of the future. Generally speaking, this criticism

takes the form, often only vaguely expressed, that the Training Colleges are more concerned with training in professional technique rather than in the development of a philosophy of life and education. These young trainees often remind one of the saying of Galsworthy, 'He won't be happy till he gets it . . . the trouble is, he doesn't know what it is he wants'.

This stage is, however, now passing, and an increasing number of young people are beginning to feel uncertain about the efficacy of ready-made techniques without a philosophy of life and education which can alone give purpose to the work of the schools. They realize that in the modern world the ability to use a technique perfectly without a knowledge of the end for which it is used is the basis of the Totalitarian philosophy. They have no desire to join Hitler's flock of dumb, driven sheep. They desire, rather, to be the conscious instruments of a purpose recognized by themselves as good. They hear much loose and sentimental talk about the individuality of the child, free discipline, and modern methods, but they have yet to find the co-ordinated activity expressive of the ideal.

These are facts of which the Training Colleges must take increasing account. They indicate that the course should be at least a three years' one from the age of 18, that the content of the curriculum should be widened, and that the college should provide more opportunities than it often does for active and independent participation by the students in the affairs of everyday life. Some of the Training Colleges of this country are meeting this challenge in a wholly admirable spirit. But there are others in which authoritarian rule from above is producing teachers skilled in technique but narrow in outlook and dogmatic in belief. Some of these products remind one of the American Negro who said, 'I can't get lost because I'm not going anywhere.' The atmosphere of the boarding school still persists in many Training Colleges.

To offer these criticisms is not to imply that all Training Colleges are stagnant, for many of them are alive to the needs of the situation and are striving in an entirely admirable manner to meet them. They are hampered in the first place by the tradition indicated by

the word 'training'. That is, their main function is viewed as that of training more than that of educating. In the second place many of their students have come to them with immature minds and often, alas, with an idea that teaching is an occupation both respectable and safe and not a vocation. In the third place the normal course of 'training' is far too short to enable the necessary functions of a Training College to be served at all adequately. In the old days when all the emphasis in the schools was on the more formal aspects of education, the essential 'tricks of the trade' could be drilled into students in the time allotted. But State education in this country, which originated in the demand for a literate people, is now passing to the stage when its object is to produce a cultured people. The Hadow reorganization is the outward sign of this change in objective. The kind of teacher training which served adequately the purpose of the first objective has proved, as might be expected, useless in the case of the second. To make a people literate makes no demand that the teachers should have a definite outlook on life and a proper sense of values. But without a philosophy and without a sense of values there can be no culture.

The Training Colleges have therefore been confronted with a most difficult task. In some cases they have endeavoured to give their students a knowledge of modern methods without that thorough knowledge of child development and philosophy of education which can alone give purpose to the methods. In others rudimentary child psychology has been taught and pioneers of educational thought 'studied' without the logical deductions as to method being made either from the science or the philosophy. What is so necessary and so urgent is the acceptance of the fact that theory and practice are but the obverse sides of the truth. Unfortunately, many students seem to believe that theory and practice are two distinct fields, best kept severely apart.

This view has been reinforced in them by some of the Head Teachers under whom they have had to serve upon leaving College. During the earlier period of my administrative career, I have heard Head Teachers remark, upon being notified that a teacher fresh from

College was joining their staff, 'I shall have to teach him how to teach.' The prejudice against the young teacher fresh from College still persists. There is a reluctance to have a new entrant into the profession if one with teaching service can be obtained. It is not that the more experienced teacher has both theory and practice at his command, but that his practice has almost reached the stage of routine performance. The older school of Head Teachers preferred the narrowly-trained technician to the modern product, as might well be expected. The

Colleges produced that for which there was a demand and vicious circles are always hard to break. It is a matter for congratulation that some Colleges are at present sending out young teachers who are desperately keen to know both why they teach, and why they teach in a certain manner, and who are determined to make their teaching expressive of a faith which is at the same time a philosophy of life. I have seen a very welcome increase in this type of young teacher during the time that I have held responsible posts in administration. The conditions in the schools to which they go sometimes makes their faith burn less brightly than it should. But they are increasing in number, and the ultimate victory will be to

them. If the Training Colleges can see in their work the education of the chosen leaders of a free and cultured democracy and frame their schemes and their outlook upon their students in the light of this vision, then the world will move forward to that new state of society which is so much

Dr. Stead says :

1. Students . . . hear much loose talk about the individuality of the child, free discipline and modern methods, but they have yet to find the co-ordinated activity expressive of the ideal.

2. State education in this country, which originated in the demand for a literate people, is now passing to the stage when its object is to produce a cultured people. . . . To make a people literate makes no demand that the teacher should have a definite outlook on life and a sense of values. But without a philosophy and without a sense of values there can be no culture.

3. When the Training College becomes the mode of entry into a unified teaching profession, then alone can it play the part appropriate to it in any democratic scheme of education.

to be desired. The Training Colleges must demand more time for true education, which must always be a leisurely process. It cannot be rushed. There must be time to halt and browse by the wayside and this increased time must be utilized in the first place to develop in their students the good way of life—a life expressive of values, firmly held in spite of all obstacles, and in the second place it must be utilized to indicate to the students how, through the educative process, this knowledge of the good life can be passed on to their successors.

I should be shirking what I believe to be one of the vital aspects of this problem if I did not make some reference to the economic issues involved. I have indicated that, in my opinion, some Training Colleges have faced the problems of the training of teachers under modern conditions in a wholly admirable manner. But they are often handicapped by economic conditions. A wise nation would see to it that there was no stint of money in the training of the officers of the army of culture. The position to-day is that the Training Colleges are much hampered in their work by lack of adequate finance, and when the young teacher leaves the State Training College and finds that his or her remuneration is definitely lower than that of the untrained

graduate teaching in a Secondary School, the question is bound to arise as to what value the State places on training. When the Training College becomes the mode of entry into a unified teaching profession, then alone can it play the part appropriate to it in any democratic system of education.

—ARNOLD—

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Suggested Improvements in the Teachers' Training Colleges

By a Student

STUDENTS are becoming increasingly aware of the part the Training Colleges will have to play in education. As a result, they are taking greater notice of what and how they study in their Training Colleges and of the conditions under which they have to live. While realizing that, for the moment, public attention is focussed elsewhere, we feel that we are the teachers of the future, and that our demands for reform deserve attention.

We wish to have more expert technical training so that when we reach our classrooms we may be more adequate teachers. We also want a chance to make ourselves better citizens *through* our training, so that our interests may not be bounded by the classroom.

There is dissatisfaction in the Training Colleges on the questions of curriculum and courses. This was apparent at the British Student Congress held at Leeds this March (a gathering of over 500 students which lasted for six days under the auspices of the Co-ordinating Committee of Student Organizations in England and Wales). Here for the first time over 40 Training College students came to a *University* students' meeting.

A Commission was set up to discuss problems within the Training Colleges. Fourteen Training Colleges were represented and they and other students who attended stressed the need for the following improvements :

1. *A Three-Years' Course.* A resolution drawn up at the Training College Commission and passed unanimously by its 35 members, and at the Plenary Session of the whole congress with five abstentions, put the general feeling :

'This Congress deplores the present narrow basis of the Training College course, where no time is left for the full development of the individual on account of overcrowding of lectures and their compulsory nature. It believes that the Training Colleges require an extended course of three years if they are to fulfil their proper function of

training teachers adequately and calls upon all students to co-operate in demanding these reforms together with increased grants to make it possible.'

It was realized that this demand for a three-years' training with increased grants is not likely to be met during a war. Yet this improvement was strongly advocated and much discussed by the students at Leeds. Many Training Colleges not represented there feel the same throughout the country.

2. *University Status for Training Colleges.* Is there any justification for the existence of Training Colleges in England as separate bodies? Training Colleges are attached to the Universities through their external examiners and in some cases through their lecturers. Yet only a few of them (e.g. Goldsmiths' College, which is attached to London University and enjoys full status as a university college) have any status in the universities. If every Training College were a faculty of some university, its teacher's certificate would amount to a degree of that university. This would be a means of bridging the gap between elementary and secondary school education and would give students the benefit of university membership, instead of their present conditions of almost complete isolation.

The improvements described and advocated so far have been concerned only with reforms to be brought about from without, with no allusion to the actual training and curriculum. The following are plans for internal re-organization :

3. *Examination Reform.* With the exception of medical students and those of certain branches of social science, Training College students have probably the largest number of subjects in which they are examined. In a certain three-year Froebel Training College, examinations are held in all the subjects of the course with the exception of such things as physical training, country dancing, and

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eurhythmics. Botany, zoology, and mathematics are examined in the first year; English, geography or history, music and handwork in the second; hygiene, history of educational ideas, principles of education (psychology), organization and methods of teaching (two papers), and the special subject for thesis work which each individual has been studying during the second and third year. This makes twelve papers to be written.

The Congress discussed a proposal that there should be examinations in the professional subjects and not in the cultural subjects. While the system based on competition in examinations in professional subjects is necessary, tests other than examinations should be used in the cultural subjects to assess the student's ability and progress. This would alleviate the strain of final examinations. Tests could be more frequent than examinations; each student's progress could be judged more readily and time given to discussing the test papers would be a valuable correlative and would provide opportunities for the necessary criticism.

4. *Tutorial System.* A proper, working

tutorial system was advocated very strongly. We discovered that this would mean more lectures and/or a new arrangement of the time-table so as to give everybody an opportunity of one tutorial a week on the basic subjects of the curriculum. The lecturers would suffer. They would have more work to do, but they would come to know the students better and the students would be far more likely to discuss intelligently any difficulties that had arisen during private reading or in lecture time, since there would be a class of 10 or 12 instead of 30 or 40.

In this connection it was also advocated that attendance at lectures should be optional. In some training colleges this is already so, but generally a register is taken at lectures and an absence is consequently noticed. If any student cuts more than two or three lectures she is severely reprimanded.

In one Training College a survey was taken of the opinion of the students on questions of curriculum, college government, and free time. 'Sixty per cent. made suggestions for improvements in the curricula. They included

an appeal for concentration in the more professional side of training and more discussions in lecture time to help general education'.¹

The suggestions from this college were :

1. More choice and less compulsory work.
2. Concentration on professional training.
3. Omission or shortening of certain subjects.
4. More discussion to widen education.

With the progressive methods of education which are gradually being adopted in most schools, we as students feel that there is more need than ever for a closer relationship between teacher and child, and for a greater missionary attitude towards our vocation. This can only

¹ *Student News*, March 1940.

be achieved through the development of our intellectual capabilities *during* the years of training, and the reforms suggested above have been planned with a view to such development and to give the student time and scope to deal with all the problems of progressive education to-day.

Although in some Training Colleges students feel that existing conditions are satisfactory, there are many who do not, and who find no way in which to bring about any reforms, owing to lack of time and opportunity for publicity. Therefore we take this chance of indicating that there are a number of colleges where the students are making an effort to become alive to existing conditions and are endeavouring to do something about them.

Vocation and the Training Colleges

Marjorie E. Reeves

Tutor in History,
Society of Oxford Home Students

THERE is really no such thing as 'general' education, any more than there are 'general' persons, for all real education is particular to particular persons. We often speak of standards which 'everyone ought to reach' and things which 'everyone ought to know', and, of course, this rough standardization is useful. But we need to remind ourselves constantly that in reality all knowledge is particular—someone's knowledge—and that a really general education, consisting of precisely the same amount of information for everyone, learnt in exactly the same way without any individual emphases, is an impossibility, for either it leaves the individual untouched, passing clean over his head, or else he makes his own selection from it and thus transforms it into a particular education. The

important thing, of course, is not that everyone should know the same things, but that each should select that which may become a living and significant element in his experience and form part of his personal synthesis.

The choices which the individual makes and which are the basis of his particular education, arise partly out of his special tastes and aptitudes, partly out of his social environment, and partly out of the work which he gradually comes to see as his to do in the world. This choice of vocation usually arises out of a combination of the first two factors, and if it is genuinely personal it marks an important stage in his education. He is no longer an irresponsible child whose interests and aptitudes may lead him at will over the whole field of knowledge and experience,

Dr. Reeves says :

1. The vocational basis of the Training College course, if rightly conceived, is its strength rather than its weakness.

2. The Training College sets out to achieve two ends simultaneously—to make some part of the field of knowledge or art 'come alive' for the student and at the same time to make the student face the challenge of imparting her knowledge to others.

3. The first aim of the Training College must be to free the student from the dead weight of crammed material. The very fact of her vocation ought to be a challenge to get clear of second-hand information and to seek a personal culture.

4. At the heart of this education there will be a growing understanding of persons, of their development and of their life through relationships, and with this, an understanding of how one's own self impinges upon other persons, both children and contemporaries, and an acceptance of responsibility towards other persons.

for in making his choice he has entered into the beginnings of responsibility and has begun to learn the fundamental lesson of growing up, namely that to be or do anything worth while one has to give up other things, deliberately to narrow oneself down, undergo the discipline of learning techniques which may limit one's enjoyment of other techniques. One of the main purposes of education at this stage is to help the individual to accept this fact of vocation, to realize the significant place which *he* must fill in the social pattern, and to undertake the necessary discipline to which he is called.

This line of thought obviously expresses the present retreat from 'liberalism'—from the ideal of a general, 'liberal' education for all—and the present tendency to think of education sociologically. We have to watch lest the pendulum swings too far, lest we rob the individual of all significance apart from his place in society, for education and civilization depend on the great 'liberal' belief in the independent status of persons, which is summed up by saying that society exists for man and not man for society. In education this means that vocation and the training for vocation exist for the making of man and not for his exploitation. But with this safeguard it remains true that to-day we must reinterpret the concept of vocation in the education of the individual, and rescue it from disgrace. This means, as Professor Clarke has pointed out, transcending the false antithesis between technical and liberal education, for as a Royal Commission remarked so long ago as 1895, 'technical instruction must be considered not as the rival of a liberal education but as a specialization of it.'¹

The problem of the Training Colleges must be studied as a particular form of this general problem of how to make vocation the core of an education at once particular in application and wide in implication, truly selective yet broad in principle. The British Student Congress in March this year moved that Training College education should be directed towards 'the fullest development of the individual'. Too often what is intended by this phrase is not literally what it means, but a development so general and unspecialized as

to be unreal. Every good is a particular good, and in planning the Training College course we have to ask continually 'good for whom'?

The choice of a vocation, then, with its assumption of responsibility and discipline, can be an integrating factor in the growth of personality, for it introduces a strong and personal principle of selection. The vocational basis of the Training College course, if rightly conceived, is therefore its strength rather than its weakness. It is possible for a university student to avoid the responsibility of growing up by three or four more years of education with no real purpose in view at all. A Training College student is saved from this dilettantism, at least, by the experience of her first school practice, when she is challenged by the demands of forty children, hungry for knowledge or experience. Of course the University is in reality as much a place of vocational education as the Training College. We used to distinguish the vocation of the scholar, who is primarily concerned with the building of knowledge, from that of the teacher, whose first concern is with growing persons and with the interpretation of knowledge in their lives. Of course, the two interact: the scholar is often the wise teacher and in any case gives the results of his research to a public, however remote, whilst the teacher, for his part, should have enough enthusiasm for the truth in his subject to reach the pitch of independent investigation. But in general the two vocations are distinct, and it may be said that the university, while educating many who design themselves for other vocations, including that of teaching, exists primarily for those who would build up knowledge; whereas the Training College is designed exclusively for those who would mediate it to the young.

It would be impossible and undesirable to design a system of selection whereby all those primarily interested in a subject went to a university, and all those primarily interested in children went to a Training College. Certainly both types will be found, and are needed, in the training college. But the students whom the Training College most needs to catch are those who, whatever their initial viewpoint, will find themselves through a vocational training in which an interest in subject-matter meets an

¹ *Spens Report*, p. 61.

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interest in persons, and each quickens the other. For the distinctive mark of the Training College is that it sets out to achieve two ends simultaneously—to make some part of the field of knowledge or art 'come alive' for the student, and at the same time, to make the student face the challenge of imparting her knowledge and enthusiasm to others. The main contention of this article is that for many students these ends are best achieved simultaneously, and in particular that success in achieving the second contributes greatly to the first.

Take, for instance, the student who, coming with an absorbing and exclusive interest in one subject, yet lacking the capacity to pursue it into the realm of scholarship, is likely to stick at the dead level of a second-hand and conventionally-bounded understanding. She may already have got almost as far as the study of books alone will take her, but the necessity of teaching her subject to children introduces a new experience. At first she may resent their rude encroachments on her preserve, but as she adjusts, she finds that their questions open up new possibilities, lay bare the superficiality

of her knowledge, overleap her conventional boundaries. Often, as a result, the student is able to pursue her subject with a new freedom and vitality, stimulated by the fresh approach of the children.

More common in the Training College is the other type of student who comes with no great academic interest at all, but an intense interest in children. Here, if education proceeds aright, the student's mind may be lit up by the children's questions and enthusiasms, until finally she has acquired a taste for the subject itself, and work which she has been preparing for the children becomes a real and significant part of her own culture. Thus it has been found that students who have little interest in or understanding of history, apart from the bare bones of a School Certificate course, will grow keen over the writing of a history book to answer some specific need in school, and will hunt enthusiastically through sources of all kinds to find authentic answers to children's questions. The result is nearly always increased understanding for the student herself of the stuff of history. This seems to be equally true in artistic subjects where the student may be freed into a more genuinely personal taste and feeling by contact with a spontaneous group of children. Often an experience of success with children in itself stimulates personal development and so makes possible work of richer quality in the intellectual or artistic sphere.

Perhaps the most important part of this experience for the student lies in the breaking down of second-hand standards and conventional attitudes. Often the necessities of School Certificate and Higher School Certificate have imposed upon the student studies which satisfy a university specialist's standard of scientific selection and balance, but which remain unreal for the immature school child, since an objective standard, too early or too completely imposed, results in cramming, that is, in the amassing of facts which are beyond the capacity of the learner to assimilate. The first aim of the Training College course must be to free the student from the dead weight of crammed material, for she can only learn that which is alive to her. The very fact of her vocation ought to be a challenge

to get clear of second-hand information and to seek a personal culture. If rightly handled experimental work in the schools stimulates this process. Planning projects or schemes of work centred round life-interests means breaking down conventional subject-barriers, flinging away preconceived ideas of their content, collecting material from new and unorthodox angles. Again, a really live discussion with a class will go off into the most unexpected and original paths, showing up how little one really knows where one thought one knew enough, and how much there is still to explore. From such experiences a student may return to study with a new elasticity of mind, and a sense that the field of knowledge consists, not of neat subject plots with contents already labelled, but of vast tracts, much unexplored, and all inviting free entry and discovery.

Thus the student's own studies must be planned to develop personal taste and initiative, to give training in the choice of significant facts, to lead to a personal synthesis as rich and as wide as possible. This is not achieved by leading the student down certain well-defined and standardized academic paths. The Training College course must not be merely a simplified university course, but must be framed so that the educational approach is through personal and vocational interests. The danger is, of course, that such studies may remain at too subjective a level, and may never achieve a degree of objectivity sufficient to satisfy the subject specialist. This has to be watched, for all education should represent a progressive movement towards a more mature and objective view of the truth ; but it is far more important in a Training College to turn out people to whom something is alive, than to maintain a correct academic standard.

The content of a Training College course needs, therefore, to be infinitely adaptable and capable of varying emphases to meet very different needs. Some students have already reached an academic viewpoint to which an exact training in a special subject is appropriate ; at the other extreme some students need a curriculum based on 'interests', or developing out of professional work. Here various Training College experiments in a

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unified curriculum are significant. The point to be emphasized is that there is no one standard either for content or attainment which can be applied automatically to the Training College course which is fulfilling its real function of helping the student to make a cultural-vocational synthesis.

This raises the question of the part to be played by the university. The connection between Training College and University needs to be carefully thought out, for while it is of the utmost importance that the mature judgment of the subject specialist should be the touchstone for all the work, the Training College student must not be forced into a formal groove of knowledge. Probably the university specialist should maintain close contact with the 'advanced' (i.e. the more mature) courses, whilst much freedom should be enjoyed for other courses which may be unified either round personal or vocational interests. As one Training College report says : 'More and more the emphasis should be on the student's own approach, and opportunity given to him to pursue lines of thought

and reading which interest him particularly.' The point at which this question becomes most crucial is in the framing of syllabuses and examination-papers by University and Training College Examiners in conjunction. There is some evidence that over-standardized courses and examinations in some cases are defeating the whole purpose of the Training College, as we have defined it. It is clear that a student often does her most creative work in a 'special study', or in a book written for children; for the individual selection and development of a theme, and the production of a piece of work which embodies an individual synthesis, satisfy emotional needs which work for set examinations often does not. This is not a plea for the abolition of examinations, but for the greater use of individual pieces of work in students' training and for greater elasticity in the framing of syllabuses.

The purpose of the Training College, then, is to help the student to integrate personal

and vocational interests in a synthesis which is rich in variety and high in quality. To do this adequately, many colleges probably need wider courses to give rich experience in the arts and the humanities, just as many need more varied experience in social living, but all these developments must start from the student herself, and her education should be a personal selection from wide opportunities. At the heart of this education there will be a growing understanding of persons, of their development and of their life through relationships, and with this, an understanding of how one's own self impinges upon other persons, both children and contemporaries, and an acceptance of responsibility towards other persons. Round this understanding of vocation the world of ideas of art, of natural law is built up, and this external world is grasped all the more firmly and really, because the student has begun to know herself and to know that her vocation is to be herself among children.

Guidance and Selection in the Recruitment of Teachers

Margaret Phillips

Lecturer in Education,
Stockwell College

EVERY event, we are told, is the product of a variety of causes. Not all entrants to the teaching profession, finding themselves for the first time in a Training College, could say precisely how they got there. In theory, the twin processes of guidance and selection—the attempt to find, on the one hand, for the individual his right niche, and, on the other, for the profession the right recruits—confirm and complement each other. In practice, the current which, advancing, casts one recruit up on the Training College threshold or, receding, leaves another stranded upon it, is often the result of forces which, instead of co-operating, neutralize, and confuse each other.

Three fairly recent studies* have been made

- * 1. F. M. Austin. An analysis of the motives of adolescents for the choice of the Teaching Profession. (*British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. I, part 1.)
- 2. C. W. Valentine. An enquiry as to reasons for the choice of the Teaching Profession by University Students. (*British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. II, part 3.)
- 3. Mary Birkinshaw. *The Successful Teacher*. The Hogarth Press, 3/6.

of the reasons given by actual or prospective members of the teaching profession for their choice of career. Of these, one relates to pupils still at school, one to students of a University Training Department, one to women teachers of all ages actually at work in Secondary schools. The three studies agree as to the main motives involved, but differ as to their relative importance, the difference being partly accounted for by the differing stages of personal and professional maturity attained by the subjects in each case. No comparable study is known to me of the motives influencing students in the two year colleges, but it may be worth while to set my own (purely subjective) impression of such motives beside the more objective findings of these studies. The same motives will, I suggest, recur, but again in a new order of importance. On the whole, I suppose it is true to say that the average two-year student

(1) has a lower intelligence quotient, (2) comes from a lower economic level, (3) has a narrower range of personal experience, (4) has achieved at eighteen a lesser degree of personal maturity than the majority of cases investigated in the three studies mentioned. These differences will, I suggest, largely account for the new ranking of motives.

'I have always wanted to teach' is, in my experience, the reason for their choice most commonly given in interview by women two-year candidates. This may mean one of several things.

(1) It may mean: 'I have always found happiness and satisfaction in my activities at school; in my studies; as member of a community; in the opportunities for leadership and responsibility which came to me as prefect, as house captain, through the voluntary societies; and I want to perpetuate this happiness by returning to the school community as a still more responsible member of it.' Miss Birkinshaw found that this motive had considerable weight with the members of the A.A.M.; it has, I suggest, still more weight with two-year students.

(2) It may mean: 'My parents, other relatives or teachers always assumed—or suggested—that I should teach!' Professor Valentine is sceptical of the force of this motive in the case of university students, but with two-year students I should say that it is strong. It is worth noting that Miss Birkinshaw found that 46 per cent. of her subjects mentioned the fact of a father, brother, mother, or sister being a teacher, and that 20 per cent. gave the influence of parents, teachers, or friends as among the reasons for their choice.

(3) It may mean: 'I admired certain members of the school staff, and incorporated their qualities in my ideal for myself'. The average two-year student is, I think, more susceptible to this kind of influence than the average university student.

(4) It may mean: 'I feel that teaching is my genuine vocation.' Professor Valentine found that 'liking for teaching' had more weight with university students as a motive towards the end of their course than at the beginning. This is, I suggest, what one would wish.

With two-year students, relatively less critical in their estimate of their own capacities and more naive in their view of what the profession involves, this motive may be strong at the outset but is then of correspondingly dubious value. Not many university students would write, as a two-year student did recently, 'I came to College because of a natural aptitude for teaching', or would say, as did one last year, 'My ambition is to be head of a village school; then I shall have the children with me for nine years, and I shall be able to mould them as I wish.'

Two of the motives which loom large in the three investigations referred to—material reward and a sense of security—are, in the case of the two-year student, largely suggested by parents and relatives. As original motives they are, I think, as Professor Valentine found, stronger among men than among women. Teaching for men always has to compete with the (fluctuating) economic attractiveness of other callings, the supply of candidates being correspondingly plentiful during a slump.

A former colleague in a mixed college reminds me that during a period after the last war when there was a shortage of men teachers a Local Education Authority circularized its Secondary schools with a table shewing the relative rates of pay of an electrician and one or two skilled trades, and of a teacher, to show that on balance over a period of 40 years and counting pension, elementary teaching was a little more remunerative.

On the other hand, for women, too, as a student recently put it, '£3 10s. a week seems an awful lot of money when your father has hardly ever earned as much,' and there are many women who respond gladly to the prospect of being able not only to keep themselves but also to help support an unemployed father, a widowed mother or an invalid sister, or to educate a younger brother.

The N.U.T., in its recent report (1939) on the Training of Teachers, points out that the supply of both men and women candidates comes largely from the economically depressed areas. Whereas, they say, teaching needs for its upkeep a quarter of all Secondary school pupils between the ages of 17 and 19,

certain schools in prosperous areas may produce only one or two candidates annually, but in Durham and Wales there are schools whose sixth forms are largely composed of pupils intending to be teachers.

But on the whole I suggest that with two-year women a sense of one's own cultural, and social needs, and an impulse to pursue one's personal development is at any rate as strong as are the cruder material motives, and tends to increase in strength—as Professor Valentine found—as training proceeds.

Two sets of students enter the two-year colleges as it were by default. There are the intellectually abler students who have just failed to obtain a State or Local Authority Scholarship to a university, and there are those whose account of themselves is 'I wanted to be a doctor—artist—musician—journalist—actress—research chemist; but there was no money for training, or there were no prospects, so I had to come to this.' These students present a special problem; they are a potential centre of disgruntlement, but if reconciled and converted they may be the salt of the community and later of the profession.

The field of candidates produced in all these ways has now to be considered as regards quantity and quality. As to quantity, this will vary, as has been shown, with the number of openings offering in other directions, but also with prospects in the profession depending upon a national policy of expansion or contraction in education. At the same time, the number of places to be filled in the Training Colleges is constantly revised by the Board of Education in the light of changes in the school population, or in the age of entry and of leaving school, and of other factors likely to affect demand. The net result of all these considerations is that the number of candidates offering themselves may range from rather fewer than the number of places available to four times as many.

As regards quality, the most recent authoritative pronouncement occurs in a Memorandum by the Council of Principals of Training Colleges and the Training College Association on the Training of Teachers, published in 1938. The Memorandum states 'Teaching in elementary schools does not attract enough

girls and boys with a good background of education and culture. . . . The problem is intimately bound up with that of the status of the elementary school and the elementary school teacher. The field of selection must necessarily remain too limited so long as the general public fails to realize the importance, high social value and dignity of the work in elementary schools, the qualities it demands, and the improvements in social conditions which are being gradually brought about.'

We reach now the point at which the Training Colleges make their selection. The position has been summarised by the N.U.T. in its recent Report on the Training of Teachers as follows:

'Each Training College acts independently in the selection of its candidates, and although there is a minimum academic standard laid down by the Board of Education, the actual standard varies . . . not only from College to College; it varies from year to year in accordance with the supply. . . . The educational standard is not the only consideration. Some (Colleges) look for one set of qualities in their applicants and some lay stress on others.'

In spite of this admitted variety of procedure, it would be true, I think, to say that nearly all Colleges ask for the following:

- (1) The statutory academic attainment—First School Certificate.
- (2) A report by the Head of the School attended by the applicant.
- (3) Where the applicant has had previous teaching experience, a report by the Head of the School in which the work was done.
- (4) A personal interview with a member of the College staff.
- (5) Sometimes a further personal reference from an independent witness.

With the exception of (1), these requirements are as yet very little standardized. The report from the Head of the applicant's Secondary School may be standardized to some extent by asking the Head either to answer a specific questionnaire; or to place all candidates from the same school in order of merit; or to assign to them a grade letter possessing an agreed meaning for (1) intellectual and (2) personal quality. The report on the candidate's practical teaching may

similarly be standardized by the use of a grade letter.

The personal interview—beyond the fact that each college may use its own routine series of questions as to reading, leisure-time interests, social and athletic activities, etc.—is at present as unstandardized as the demands of the Colleges are varied. Cattell* has attempted to solve this problem, and has produced a list of the qualities most generally agreed on (by Education Administrators, Inspectors, Heads of Schools, Training College Staffs, and pupils) as desirable in a teacher. Since of this list (intelligence, personality and will, sympathy and tact, open-mindedness, sense of humour, idealism, kindness, enthusiasm, perseverance, self-control) only the first can as yet be objectively measured, it should be, he suggests, the object of the interview to arrive at a standard rating for these

qualities (marking the first six qualities each out of ten points and the last four out of five). In actual practice, the College, when making its selection has to bear in mind not only the permanent need for certain qualities but the fluctuating demands of Local Authorities—often expressed with much vigour and varying from year to year—for teachers of young children and of adolescents; for specialists in music, physical training, or crafts.

We leave our candidate at this point, at the outset of his college career, his admission still in part the result of a chance convergence of forces at a particular point; his knowledge of the demands which the profession will make on him still scanty; his adequacy to such demands still a matter of speculation; above all, the conflict between these demands and those which he himself is still making, and will yet make of life, not only unresolved but as yet unrevealed. To these problems subsequent articles will address themselves.

* R. B. Cattell. The Assessment of Teaching Ability. (*British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. I, part 2.)

Students and Children

M. A. Braybrooks

St. Gabriel's College, Camberwell

THE part played in Training Colleges by text-books and by lecturers, however zealous, is in the writer's experience so unreal as to be valueless unless it follows closely, and helps to solve, the problems which confront students in their actual work with children. It is essential to bring students and children together in a variety of personal contacts as soon, and as often, as possible.

When they enter College, students turn to the new 'subject' — psychology — with pride, as belonging to the new grown-up world they have just entered, though some of the glamour fades when the tedious business of making accurate observations from life is insisted upon. Many

students are only too ready to lean on text-books and avoid thinking for themselves. Their tendency is to think that the new work is easy

and to devote their serious energies to the subject which has already made intellectual claims upon them at school. It is only after close contact with children that their sympathies are aroused, that the early enthusiasm is recaptured and an interest built up, not on academic stimulus only, but on knowledge and true feeling. It is illuminating to watch the process of conversion. A student may give an example from her observations which will throw light on some aspect of child development and stimulate discussion. She

Miss Braybrooks says :

1. It is only by personal discovery that Training College students become aware of the fundamental truths about children.

2. We have become convinced of the immense value of the less formal observations which can be made in the streets, parks, playgrounds, and homes.

3. One thing that interested the students and gave them material for thought was that big girls of twelve or thirteen went through all the earlier experimental stages of the young child.

4. By the end of her two years' training, the student is ready to appreciate good text books and to profit from studying them; a third year would consolidate her knowledge and give her a chance to apply it.

is encouraged by her contribution and undertakes, perhaps, to report more fully, or to check her example by further observations. As her work expands, she becomes increasingly alive to its possibilities and to the part she must play as a member of the student-group. An occasion to report slight progress in the development of some one child will carry her over disappointments with others, while the co-operative spirit, engendered by the sharing of successes and failures, and the pooling of examples and experiences, plays an important part in her training.

The reaction of work with children on students' personal problems is very noticeable. Discussions about children often reveal personal prejudices and attitudes of an emotional nature, such as reticence or truculence. The self-absorbed or over-anxious student experiences great difficulties in her practical work; she needs help if these personal problems are to be resolved and a freer contact with children established. Group discussions, arising spontaneously out of some problem or circumstances quite external to the students, prevent excessive self-consciousness and introspection; and in many cases personal anxieties and other difficulties seem to work themselves out during the course of training. Only those who enter College with a healthy background of development can, however, really be said to satisfy their children's needs and to synthesize their knowledge in the short two years allowed them; and there must always be a residuum of students whose personal barriers do not even begin to break down, and whose cases require individual and expert treatment.

At the beginning of the War it seemed likely that war conditions would make training extremely difficult; but the result has been that, as one student puts it in a letter, 'we seem to have gained experience rather than lost it; what appeared make-shift at the time in our practical work seems to have been more helpful than in normal times, especially in our theoretical work. Perhaps what has been called "normal" will never be thought so again, for after the results and progress of this year have been clearly seen, our work may set a new standard of normality.'

Conclusions which tutors were slowly arriving at have been rapidly clinched by the experience

of war time. We have become convinced of the immense value of the less formal observations which can be made in the streets, parks, playgrounds, and homes. In peacetime we were too ready to rely on well-organized schools and we often travelled far afield in search of children, instead of looking in the back streets, parks, and homes near the College. It is true that each year seems to have made our association with the schools more satisfactory and our practice in them more valuable; but we are at best only welcome visitors, with little responsibility and with no hand in planning organization. As a supplement to our school-work we need contact with children as individuals and as members of smaller groups. Such small groups have been found in very unexpected quarters, and clubs for all ages, play centres, small nurseries, teaching groups in settlements, have welcomed us as fellow-workers. The fact that the service given is voluntary and mutually helpful to the club leaders and to the students, makes for a happy relationship.

Ambitious students may only volunteer for such work, which appears to take them from their books, for the sake of the benefits they hope to receive, or because the community spirit has become overpoweringly in favour of such work; but gradually, as the emphasis is placed on giving as well as getting, on what the student may do to benefit the child rather than on the training she is receiving, a balance may be established. Everyone likes to feel useful and students are no exception; they flourish when they feel that they are contributing to the life of the children and this makes for a happy co-operation between young and old.

One set of students known to the writer lately took over a play centre in a disused public house. The fact that they were allowed by the club leader to set about openly to reorganize and reform it acted as a great stimulus to effort. It was their particular job and they went about it in a responsible way, not unduly discouraged by mistakes and failures. Such freedom from anxiety is, in the nature of things, easier to achieve in the informal atmosphere of a club than in a well-organized school. The students themselves, not the leader, considered the number and

ages of the children who could profitably be educated together, the nature and amount of the equipment to suit the ages of the children ; and then set to work to collect money and material to prepare the rooms. There was no time-table so, after discussion, a long activity period was arranged, followed by a quieter organized period of music or literature. Names were to be registered, tickets made, order and routine considered. They kept a detailed record of the children and of their activities, which formed a basis for discussion and helped them to decide what material to discard as unsuitable, and what was needed in addition from day to day. Of course, they made many mistakes and went through the stages of disillusionment and despair before their sympathetic treatment yielded any results. But they had the encouragement of small successes, so familiar to all teachers. Here are examples of 'success' : Tom concentrated for 25 minutes to-day on painting a picture and then went round looking at other children's work. Bert was less aggressive and had a happier expression on his face after an afternoon spent digging up part of the backyard. (Bert had previously been very anti-social.) The older girls became less superior and more friendly during their cooking activity in a small basement kitchen and sat down earnestly to write out the recipes for their mothers and to keep the accounts.

Another play centre—once a Dame School—where the older girls used the centre as an escape from housework and were inclined to settle round the fire and gossip, was more difficult to handle. They would begin a job, such as dressing a doll for the younger children or rehearsing a play, but were loath to finish it when the first interest had waned or if there was a difficulty to surmount. Observations showed them turning their eyes longingly in unguarded moments in the direction of the water and dough. When they realized that they were not laughed at but that such activities were taken for granted, their sophistication vanished and they became absorbed. What interested the students and gave them material for thought was that these big girls of twelve and thirteen went through all the earlier experimental stages of the young child and

only wanted to make anything for a definite purpose after a fortnight of spasmodic activity. These very simple examples are given to show what kind of experience the students are getting with children : they are learning theories of education in a practical way which is convincing and encouraging, for they think they are making discoveries about children and are proud to band themselves with the 'pioneers' ! On the other hand, their failures keep them humble, for they are only too conscious that some children are quite unmoved and unsympathetic towards their attempts at providing suitable work.

It is only by personal discovery that Training College students become aware of the fundamental truths about children. When they have obtained their first posts, they will often write letters telling of their discoveries—simple truths which have been expounded in lectures time and again !

It has taken us a long time to realize the necessity in student training of a Children's Centre entirely organized and maintained by the students themselves, and one which brings a close association with the children's homes. In one such centre connected with a Training College, the parents (mostly unemployed fathers) have not only joined with the students in making and providing the material for the toys, but have, from the first, taken an active interest in the education of the children. Mr. M. said at a Committee meeting : 'We want some more men to come to the College to make toys : we don't want just any toys made anyhow, but proper toys made well !' Mr. C., talking about the Play Centre, said, 'you see, the children don't just play ; they learns as well !' A father is always there to move the sand and clay trays, and mothers and fathers often come to sit in a corner and watch the children. Mr. T., who saw boys sawing wood on a box, said, 'Them kids need a bench !' He made one, and checked up its size by watching them at work—'It's 4 inches too high.' He took it away, 'as we must have everything just right in our centre !' The parents have also taught the College lessons in courtesy and how to behave in a children's playroom !

The Fathers' Toy-making Club and the

Play Centre arose quite naturally out of the needs of a new housing estate. But the club has already become part of a larger Community Association and can now function in its own headquarters instead of in the College premises. The College must go to them in future and continue the relationship which has meant so much to it. That it must also have meant something to the men was revealed by the following conversation, overheard in a public house on the estate. Stranger to the club: 'What is this 'ere College you keep talkin' about?' Club member: 'Why, *our* College where we learns 'ow to make toys.'

Another useful development from this Play Centre is the natural opportunity it provides for visiting the homes of the children. Students and staff are gradually becoming more fully trusted, and, by some parents, expected and welcomed. Visiting the homes has now become an important part of the two-year course, and, incidentally, filed records of the information obtained during these visits have been useful to the school when getting into touch with the children again after evacuation. Side by side with such activities, which involve detailed organization of student groups, the individual student goes through the more tedious process of learning by watching. For this observation, the parks and streets, as well as the Centre provide rich opportunities for analysis and discussion. In the parks, for

example, we can watch babies learning to talk, walk, and climb, accompanied by mothers, fathers, or older children; we see the influence of the adult on the child and attempts at training; we find small family groups playing together, we see children striving for independence and then, when tired, hurt, or thwarted, swinging back to an earlier dependence; we observe their curiosities and fears, concentrated efforts and fickle whims and phantasies. In fact, an intelligent student will discover for herself from first-hand observation many of the important phases of human development; she will also begin to piece them together into a whole, aware of the intricacies of the human mind and the dangers of dogmatic statement. By the end of her two years' training, the student is ready to appreciate good text-books and to profit from studying them; but it is too short a time in which to travel far along the road of discovery. A third year would consolidate her knowledge and give her a chance to apply it.

Since the conception of teaching as a social service has been adopted as a goal worthy of our best efforts, the life in our training colleges has become wider and more vigorous; and we should at least be able to expect from all students who have enjoyed that life, an attitude of reverence towards children, and a desire to help them, to the best of their ability, to develop normally and happily.

The Social Basis of the Training College Curriculum

Catherine Fletcher

Principal of Bingley Training College,
Yorkshire

THE Training College curriculum is confused in its aims and over-burdened with material which it expects the student to assimilate. This is not surprising for it embodies the confusion of aims and methods widely prevalent in education. While Training Colleges are feeling their way towards a sound psychological and social basis for the curriculum, they are hampered by the traditional subject and method basis.

There are two factors, which, if their

implications are honestly faced, recondition the curricula of the Training Colleges and the schools: the psychological factor and the social factor.

Broadly and briefly the aim of Training Colleges is to show teachers how they can help children to live co-operatively and creatively in society. This assumes a primary regard for human relationships, respect for persons and the working out of a co-operative society in which such respect is of paramount value. An

intending teacher must therefore be educated in the understanding of children and of society. (This article will also assume that education involves learning by experience in the sense worked out by Dewey in *Education and Experience*.) But the Training College is concerned not only objectively in educating the student in the understanding of children and society, but in educating the student himself, in helping to liberate him as a person in order that he may be dynamically effective as a teacher.

No one could pretend that these aims could be fulfilled in two years or even in three, but the Training College only justifies its function in so far as this process of education is begun.

Hundreds of young teachers left Training Colleges in July, and by now the large majority of them will be working under the most exacting conditions in urban, suburban, and rural districts. They will be faced with the child's most urgent and intimate problems of hygiene and human relationships in a society that is adjusting itself to the extreme conditions of totalitarian war. These conditions throw into clear relief the basic need to educate the teacher in children and society.

War conditions apart, it is true that the large majority of the nation's children are taught in urban districts which represent a complexity of society which is the direct result of the developments of the Industrial Revolution. How much of our education of teachers or of children has taken into account this all-important fact? It could be maintained that it is because school instruction has been divorced from an understanding of society, that the present tragedies have overtaken us.

What sort of society is it that an urban child of to-day is born into? It is a society of people in shops of all kinds concerned with the supply of food and clothes, of people concerned with

transport, of people concerned with productive industries, of people concerned with all sorts of public services—from sewage to 'child guidance'. It is a society of people who live in houses, many of them proved unfit for habitation. It is a society where children go to school, where people go to the cinema and still go to church and chapel.

It is this society which gives a child the experiences by which he grows and lives. It is *this* society to which he must adjust himself, and in which he must find his job and his happiness. This society is the heritage of the child of to-day and the education of our teachers and children must make this heritage a conscious realization.

But the individual does not only have to adjust himself to the external relationships of society; he must also adjust to the 'inner' relationships of his family life and his friendships. These inner psychological adjustments have their direct repercussions on his external adjustments in society. It is the business of education to cope with both of these.

It is the thesis of this article that not only the study of psychology, in the sense indicated in Miss Braybrooks' paper, but the study of society should be a necessary part of the curriculum of the Training College student. It is considered that these two will form the professional basis of the curriculum and that most other activities will be derivative.

Miss Braybrooks shows how the sound approach to the study of child psychology is the particular study of children as a result of experiencing children in a variety of situations; so, too, the soundest approach to the study of society is a particular study of particular aspects in and through experience of them. This will mean that the first source of experience will be the particular environment of the student in training.

We need to look again at the different

Miss Fletcher says :

1. The Training College is concerned . . . in educating the student in the understanding of children and society and in educating the student himself, in helping to liberate him as a person in order that he may be dynamically effective as a teacher.

2. The sound approach to society is through the particular studies of food supplies, public services, etc. . . . It is maintained that these particular studies will take the place of geography, history, hygiene, general science, social science, civics, history of education of the current curriculum.

3. The time has come for the staffs of Training Colleges to take courage to be themselves pioneers of a necessary reorientation of education.

aspects of society to-day to see what kind of selection of material is available for the Training College student. There are the food supplies of the district—bread, milk, meat, fish, fruit, etc. ; there are the communications of the district—road, river, canal, rail, air. There are the productive centres and factories—coal, wool, cotton, iron and steel, pottery, shipbuilding, etc. There are the civic and public services—post, sewage, dust disposal, water supply, housing, parks, gas and electricity supply, wireless, school medical service, maternity and child welfare services, child clinics, hospitals, schools, including special schools, social insurance. There are urban district councils and county councils. There are cinemas, theatres, and dog racing tracks. There are churches and Sunday schools. There are many more institutions and clubs which form part of the complexity of our society.

These aspects of society represent the social heritage of the child of to-day. And speaking generally, it is true to say that school and college education have *not* recognized the nature of society. Anyone who is familiar with the vital interests of any small boy from five to ten, will realize how rarely does his schooling meet his needs, particularly his curiosity about the world which he has inherited as a social being.

Now it is suggested that, for the student, the sound approach to society is through the particular studies of food supplies, public services, etc. . . . The selection of material and the particular development of these studies have yet to be worked out and a great deal of experiment and hard thinking is necessary. It is maintained that these particular studies will take the place of geography, history, hygiene, general science, social science, civics, history of education, some or all of which are included in the normal Training College curriculum as separate 'subjects'.

Let it be made clear that we are not speaking of correlating subjects in the process of studying a region. There is a good deal of confusion on this issue. We are speaking of the investigation of dynamic aspects of society. An investigation that will take place, to begin with, through first-hand observation (recording evidences, for example, on a '25' map),

secondarily through conversation with the people engaged in the occupations of the particular aspect of society which is being studied.¹ Not until you have seen and heard children questioning sewermen, bus conductors, bakers' roundsmen, etc., or noted the vitalising effect on teachers of gaining material through this direct contact and questioning of people, will this most essential process of educational experience vindicate itself to you. But it will only vindicate itself to you if you yourself recognize the need for an understanding of, and a sympathy with, the people who are responsible for the work of the community. The writer has had the most inspiring educational experience of many years in watching and listening to a class of thirteen-year-old senior school boys interviewing three London sewermen for a whole afternoon.

It should be noted that this first-hand experience is one step in the process of understanding society. But this step is in itself a spur to further investigation of indirect experience, when we are dependent upon the experience and reporting of others. Ask yourself what is involved if any West Riding child or person is to become consciously aware of his heritage in the wool industry. You will realize that the degree of awareness that can be reached by a child of ten is very different from the awareness that can be reached by a student of eighteen or nineteen. You will realize that an understanding of this particular heritage demands the investigation of a variety of data which might be called sociological, economic, historical, and geographical. But it is the awareness of the heritage of the wool industry as a significant aspect of society that is the aim in view. Take by way of contrast an urban child's heritage of public lighting services and you will see that the scientific principles will need to be understood, but only in and through the social significance of these services and their historical development. (We have the most calamitous evidence around us every day of skill and learning in science that has been dissociated from social motivation.) You either accept or do not accept the prime significance of the social motive, but if you do not accept

¹ See *Actuality in School*, by G. J. Cons and C. Fletcher. (Methuen, 2/6.)

it, your world is chaos. If you do accept it, you must do some hard thinking to translate it into practical educational ends. This must be the business of any serious educationist to-day.

It is maintained that this attitude to contemporary data will not only serve the end of the student's own social education, but will at the same time give him the child's educational approach to the world he lives in—that is, the necessity to attack learning through the particularity of experience. It will make unnecessary isolated method courses in history, geography, and science.

The selection of the social aspects of society to be studied in a professional course for a two-year Training College is a very different matter, particularly as students at present come to us from secondary schools with Higher Schools qualifications, but for the most part without any kind of empirical social education. And until the secondary schools wake up to the needs of the world we live in, we must just make the most appropriate selection we can in two years, hoping for the time when our students will enter much less cumbered mentally with knowledge beyond their comprehension, but much more aware of their own social heritage than they are, more dynamic in relation to it, and more liberated emotionally.

The selection then must at present be of an experimental nature. It might be suggested tentatively that it should include (1) a study of one main food supply; (2) a study of one kind of communication; (3) a local industry; (4) as wide a selection as possible of the civic and public services, including necessarily:

- (a) Nursery, infant, junior, senior, and special schools.
- (b) School medical services, clinics, etc.

(c) Housing.

(d) A selection from sewage, dust disposal, water supply, gas, electricity, wireless.

The limits of this article preclude further discussion of the detailed development of these topics for the Training College student. As has been stated, there is much work and experiment to be done along these lines. It will be agreed that very few applicants for Training College jobs would consider themselves qualified to tackle this social work. Unfortunately they still call themselves historians, geographers, economists, psychologists, English specialists. But the time has come for the Staff of Training Colleges to take courage to be themselves pioneers of a necessary re-orientation of education. They will find that if they are in truth 'students' of a particular subject, the discrimination of true fact from false fact, of valuable data from worthless data, which must be within the capacity of any specialist, will be essential to them in this work.

It is clear that in attempting to indicate a basis for the Training College curriculum in psychology and social studies, we have not included all essential activities for the training of teachers. What are we to say of literature, dramatics, art, craft, needlework, music, quite apart from speech-training, written and verbal expression of the mother-tongue, physical training and games, and finally, the principles of education?

It will be clear that we have listed here different kinds of creative expression. With the possible exception of physical training, these must function in a necessary relationship to psychology and social experience, but it has not been possible within the limits of this article to develop this very important derivative theme.

The Curriculum of the Training College

Frances Consitt

**Chairman, Nursery School Association of Great Britain;
Principal, Avery Hill Training College, London**

IT is not so much a matter of adapting the training in Teachers' Colleges to the curricula in the schools, as of fitting the young people in the colleges to help children of the age they prefer to teach. Training

suberves the needs of children, and trainers work not merely with the existing practice in the schools in mind, but also towards more ideal curricula.

At present, in English Training Colleges,

certain subjects are compulsory for all students, a sound regulation since these subjects are the Principles and Practice of Education, Hygiene, and Physical Education. In the London Colleges, and in some other areas, all students must also take a course in the English Language. Besides these compulsory subjects, students throughout the country are required to study four or five other subjects from amongst those commonly taught in schools. If one of these is taken to a higher standard, 'Advanced' standard, one subject less may be presented for examination. For some years past, it has been usual in many colleges to allow the students free choice among these general subjects, though often one practical subject, such as Handwork, Music, Art, Gardening has been obligatory and very frequently those trained for Infant School work have been strongly urged to study Music. It is obviously of value to give students as much freedom as possible in their choice of subjects, and students, on their own initiative, make sound choices relative to their future work; and yet it has seemed to me for some time that we could be more precise in ensuring that each young teacher is thoroughly equipped for her chosen school department. We are at present experimenting towards this end.

In elementary schools, children are grouped roughly according to age, in Infant, Junior and Senior departments. Each student needs to acquire some understanding of the aims and work of all these three departments. This is achieved through weekly practice in each sort of department in turn and through the lecture courses. Further, each student needs continuous practice for as long spells as possible in at least two of these types of school, the type of her first preference and that contiguous. The student, after leaving college, will probably spend the greater part of her teaching life in the department of her choice. She needs particular knowledge of the characteristics of children of her chosen age-group, understanding of ways of helping them to learn, and considerable information about the kind of thing that interests them. This is my reason for thinking that the sort of department in which a student wishes to teach must, to a large extent, dictate the subjects she will

study in college and influence also the mode of approach adopted in college to these subjects.

At Avery Hill College, this principle has for some years been accepted in regard to Infant Teachers. All students training primarily for work in Infant schools have studied Biology and Music and taken a combined Art and Craft course, since little children naturally enjoy activity in connection with these things. English work is safeguarded by the two-year courses in English Language and in Speech Training. Story Telling is a part of the Education Courses, as are the ways of teaching the early stages of Reading, Number and Writing. The one Advanced subject which these Infant teachers take is a matter of free choice. The student may continue her Biology, Music or Craft to Advanced standard, or any other subject offered by the college. An Infant teacher may, for instance, take Advanced French, Physics or Mathematics, subjects of no utilitarian value in regard to Infant School work. She pursues this subject for her joy in it, not for any immediately vocational end. This Infant School course has long passed the experimental stage, and seems justified by results.

A Junior School Course

We are now experimenting with courses specially suitable for Junior School teachers, and I propose to use the greater part of the space at my disposal in describing this Junior School scheme, for the Junior School, it seems to me, has been somewhat the Cinderella of our state educational system. Since the publication of the Hadow reports, considerable attention has been paid by the various bodies interested in education to Senior School problems and to the training in Nursery and in Infant Schools. The Junior School would appear to have been somewhat neglected. We in the Training Colleges, through the courses on the Principles and Practice of Education, have directed our students in study of the characteristics of children of this age, but in our turn have not, it seems to me, gone sufficiently far towards fitting a young teacher to act as the general practitioner she must be in a Junior School. Nor have we progressed very far in training her to help

children to pursue their enquiries into central topics which have relations with many subjects, one fruitful method of learning for young pupils. A Junior teacher needs a sound attitude to many subjects, rather than a more detailed knowledge of two or three. We have tried to devise a scheme to meet this end.

Detail of the Junior School Course

Students training to teach children aged seven to eleven take :

(a) The *professional* subjects prescribed for all colleges.

(b) As *general* subjects the following courses :

1. A co-ordinated course of English and History for two years.
 2. A co-ordinated course of Biology and Geography for two years.
 3. Handwork for two years.
 4. Art
 5. Music
- and/or } for either one or two years.

(c) *Short Courses*, each for a year, in Scripture and in Arithmetic, understood in the fuller sense of the study of number, space and time.

Rhythm as a natural link between subjects

We planned these courses to give what seems essential for a child aged seven to eleven. We feel that children of this age are curious and active, imaginative in the early years, fond of constructive work later and that they may develop well by following unified courses with a core of the æsthetic subjects, where the emphasis is laid on creative activity and where there is a natural integration of the subjects studied. In this scheme, rhythm is the co-ordinating factor, linking English with Music, Physical Education, Handwork, Art, the study of the earth, of nature, of number, space and time. Physical Education is an essential part of this scheme, which is largely conceived as satisfying the child's strong sense of rhythm and his delight in experiencing it in movement. Let us see how rhythm, in itself satisfying

to children, can provide a natural link between the various subjects of study.

A Central English Course

English is a focal point. The English syllabus suggests that a free selection be made from such literary sources as the following :

I. (a) Folk-tales. Bible stories. Arabian Nights Entertainment. Æsop's Fables. Greek and other Myths. The Odyssey (in prose translation).

(b) The Psalms. Early Chinese and Egyptian poems (in verse translation). Folk Ballads.

(c) A Chinese play and a Greek play in translation.

II. Some medieval stories, e.g. The Song of Roland. Malory's Morte D'Arthur. Robin Hood ballads.

III. Some voyages of Hakluyt and Purchas, A Shakespeare play. A masque. Some Elizabethan and early seventeenth century lyrics, sonnets, odes and elegies.

IV. Job, some parables and other selections from the Bible. Some Milton and Bunyan, showing the influence of religious thought in seventeenth-century literature.

V. The rise of the novel in the eighteenth century, with some individual reading, pointing to the later development.

VI. Some aspects of the poetry of the Romantic Revival.

VII. Some children's literature of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

VIII. Some modern poetry and a modern play.

As we conceive the work, there are three courses integrated in this syllabus. Primarily,

we desire to develop a poetry and drama course, growing out of the rhythmic expression work in music and dancing, which will branch on the one side into the Art work and craft, themselves linked naturally with the nature study of the Biology course, and on the other side into (i) moving to verse, 'ballad-acting', poetry-speaking and verse-making based on a study of form in poetry, and (ii) miming, acting, dramatizing stories, play-making, and producing based on a study of form in drama. Where there is a close relation between words

Dr. Consitt says :

1. It is not so much a matter of adapting the training in Teachers' Colleges to the curricula in the schools, as of fitting the young people in the colleges to help children of the age they prefer to teach.

2. We planned these (Junior School) courses to give what seems essential for a child aged seven to eleven. We feel that children of this age are curious and active, imaginative in the early years, fond of constructive work later and that they may develop well by following unified courses with a core of the æsthetic subjects. . . . In this scheme, rhythm is the co-ordinating factor.

3. Personally, I consider the top form of a Senior School quite the best class for work on 'project' lines.

and music, as in the folk-ballad and the Lutenist song, the English will be closely correlated with the music. In the second place all the Language work necessary for the student will grow out of the study of the literature, and will include oral as well as written work. Throughout the course, more emphasis will be laid on creative work, for instance on verse-making and adapting stories to play-form, than on critical essays. Students will be encouraged to keep a story-bibliography and a poetry-anthology. Any teaching method necessary will be dealt with in relation to this course, speech-training being included. Thirdly, this English course is also related to the History syllabus, which is, in effect, an outline of world history. But the students finally make their own synthesis of the English and the History work. The English is not regarded as ancillary to the History. The sources studied are read in the English class primarily for their own sake, as art forms, not that they may throw light on a given period of time. The History lecturer, in her turn, makes what use she will of her students' knowledge of these literary sources. It is obvious that the English course will supply some of the sources and much of the vivid detail necessary to lively history in the schools.

The History Course

The History Scheme deals with aspects of European history, but the whole syllabus is not necessarily covered in detail each year, nor will each student necessarily attempt in detail the whole course as followed by the class. These Junior School people will dwell especially on ancient and medieval history, with selections from later periods, including the nineteenth century development of social services. The study of the ancient world is envisaged as an introduction to historical evidence, archæological and literary. Each student will be encouraged to follow out her own interest in a subject showing historical development: a student interested in science may study the history of science and omit that of art and *vice versa*. Opportunity for a close relation with the study of science and of geography is offered in discussion of the period of the Italian Renaissance, overseas expansion

and the rise of science in the seventeenth century, the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the nineteenth century adaptation of people to conditions in relation to health, industry, and welfare. Local studies will be encouraged, especially in relation to the study of medieval life. These local studies give ample opportunity for each student to examine suitable sources of historical evidence. Throughout the course, students will be given bibliographies both on sections they study individually and those they do not study in detail. Discussions will take place regularly on the technique of selection and presentation of material in the classroom with, again, full bibliographies. This professional work, dealt with in relation to the course, will naturally include practical work on the part of the student, especially in relation to the study of environment. This History course should meet the child's needs in the Junior School. It starts with the origins of certain concrete objects known to the child, passing to the origins of his own social environment, taking first the peoples about him, then the locality and an explanation of it all in terms of its history. Finally, it takes the child outward in adventurous exploits as its interests widen.

The Biology Course

The same principles of individual selection and work of individual observation inform the scientific studies. In Biology, the work is based on the observation of living material found in the neighbourhood or easily kept in the laboratory, enabling the students to gain experience in utilizing any environment and in handling and caring for a variety of material. Students will learn to recognize common trees and other plants, birds, and insects and gain some knowledge of making an ecological survey which can be linked with geographical plans and sections. All this Biology is related with local geography, map studies and plans, including land utilization maps. Each student will do a piece of individual work on a subject chosen by herself and approved by the lecturer. The subject may have a geographical or biological bias or may combine both aspects. There is a connection with the study of number

and space work in the Arithmetic course. The Biology course is selected from the following :

1. The fundamental activities of the living organism.

(Links with regional geography and the study of products.)

2. (a) Life in water including fish life-cycles. Fishing Industry.

(b) Life in soil including earthworms and their activities. Darwin's work.

(c) Life on land including fungi, modes of nutrition, conditions for growth, modern methods of food preservation.

Yeasts—Bacteria, Pasteur, Lister.

Insects. Observations on Life cycles, including economic importance.

(Links with study of Oceans and Fishing Industries.)

(d) Cold and warm-blooded animals. Factors determining geographical range ; adaptation to environment ; primary and secondary exploitation.

(Links with Regional Geography in all continents.)

(e) A few lectures on the historical aspect of biology, evolution, heredity and elementary knowledge of plant and animal breeding.

The Geography Course

Here the individual study will be of some selected district, home, holiday or school-practice area, in the nature of a regional survey and allied with the biology work. A study of the British Isles will include climate, weather, weather charts, ordnance survey maps, and such other aspects, physiographic and economic, as may be related to the particular area selected for individual study. Selections from the major geographical regions of the world will be studied, and also the oceans and exploration and discovery, that is, the particular geographical background, tides, ocean currents, winds, and climate, associated with the explorations of world significance. The close integration of this course with the biology course is obvious.

So much for syllabuses. I have no space to give details of the Music, Art, and Handwork courses. It is sufficient perhaps to say that these subjects are taken from the point of view of teaching, but with the requirement of a good standard of performance and skill from the student.

I hope that this outlined description of the syllabuses of the co-ordinated courses will serve to show how all the courses dovetail

naturally and also that a student should acquire a sound attitude to each of the subjects. The whole scheme, though undoubtedly exacting, should not make heavier demands on the students than the other usual grouping of subjects. We arrange for the usual number of general subjects, but amongst these are two integrated courses. Their imposition, along with three other ordinary courses, may suggest both overpressure on the students and superficiality in treatment. The solution of the difficulty lies in the selective nature of the syllabuses and in the method of study. No student will cover the whole of any given syllabus except in broad outline. She will make a fairly detailed study of given portions of the syllabus, portions selected according to her own interests. This is possible because of the college method of teaching, since classes are kept as small as possible and class-lecturing is reduced in favour of seminars, tutorial work, individual study and coaching. Handwork, Art, and Music will be taken at ordinary or advanced standard. If any of these is taken to Advanced Standard, one other of these subjects will be studied for a year only. The integrated courses will be taken at ordinary standard for the present, with the possibility of a 'credit' mark. Any slight disadvantage suffered by students working according to this scheme because of inability to offer the subjects of the integrated courses at advanced standard, should be more than compensated by the value of the whole course to a prospective Junior School teacher.

We feel that such a course should equip young teachers to undertake the general training of children aged seven to eleven demanded of the Junior School teacher, and, because of the nature of the training, prepare them to think of Junior School work 'in terms of activity and experience' as well as of 'knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'. The scheme is thought out on the lines of children's needs at a particular age ; the imaginative and creative side of their nature is given scope and their interest in the world in which they live, its fauna and flora, land forms, natural phenomena, recognized and fed. Yet we feel that the scheme will provide the students with a course cultural for themselves.

This consideration is of the utmost importance, for if the first essential in a teacher is that she should be good in the spiritual sense, the second surely is that she should be cultivated.

A Senior School Scheme

Only one paragraph needs to be written on this section. At present, Senior Schools are organized on specialist lines, the teachers taking only one or two subjects throughout the department. There is abroad a certain doubt as to the wisdom of this plan. Personally, I consider the top form of a Senior School quite the best class for work on 'project' lines. But, in conformity with present practice in the Senior Schools, we leave our Senior School students free to make their choice among the subjects they would like to study and to teach,

taking one Advanced Subject and two or three subjects at ordinary standard. We try to limit the number of additional courses in every possible way, so that the prospective Senior School teacher may read as widely and study as intensively in connection with her Advanced subject as time permits. Since a student takes for her advanced work the subject she most enjoys, she naturally looks forward to teaching it as her specialist subject in a Senior School.

So experiments in training are being carried on in colleges throughout the country. I have yet to meet the lecturer content with existing systems. Our greatest need, I think, is for an extended course, three years instead of two. Meanwhile, without much apparent change in forms and terminology, the approach to training in the colleges is being continually modified.

'Scrapping the Subject!'

Brian Stanley

Professor of Education,
King's College, Newcastle upon Tyne

A CRAFTSMAN is first apprentice, then journeyman, then master. A master can have apprentices articulated to him. It is technically interesting to study the exhaustive tests for master's status in medieval guilds: for instance in Venice a candidate for master's status in mosaic work must be able to lay a large tessellated floor so that no stone was higher than its neighbour by more than the thickness of a ducat; and it is socially instructive to read that in some guilds the son of a master became a master without examination.

In what is called education the craft concerned is the whole art of living, and teachers are supposed, God help them, to be masters of this art.

Among animals, where the art of living is simple and racial traditions are inborn, young animals' teachers are their parents. It would be odd to think of a number of animals combining to send their young to be shepherded by a hireling. A sow is mistress of the whole

art of living as needed by young pigs if they are to be at home in the world; and inborn in her, as in every parent, is the ability to teach and the feeling of responsibility as a teacher.

Human offspring need special treatment because their heritage is much vaster and because its mastery involves the automatic use of skills which are not instinctive, for example, the ability to read. The community is aware that in the higher ranges of tradition, sometimes even in the lower, the parent is no more than a journeyman, and further, that a human child can acquire only a small

fraction of its inheritance on the basis of the intelligent imitation of the adult which makes up most of the young pig's learning. So the community extends to the art of living the principle of apprenticeship.

Of course this is only one way of accounting for schools; but it fits in with much of the average parent's idea that his child should get

'Scrapping the subject' refers to the feeling of some people that the intending teacher, particularly though not only the University graduate, is hampered in his approach to his pupils and his job by a long academic education. The Elementary School Head Master who protests against receiving into his school or on to his staff people fitted for nothing but to be University lecturers (a term of contempt in teaching-method circles) is an exponent of this view.

a good schooling and a good chance, and with the average teacher's idea that he will be unfair to the child if he leaves Simple Interest or some account of the League of Nations out of the syllabus. But it must be admitted that in one's more depressed moments one feels that many time-tables, syllabuses and school-buildings result from our forgetting that education is not a craft like glass-blowing or cabinet-making, but is rather the apprentice's room in the workshop of living.

A teacher, a master of the art of living on the human level, is by definition one who is good at living, and is respected by his apprentices for his mastery of his craft. There is a world of reasons why a teacher is almost bound to fall short of this definition: the differing social *milieu* of teacher and pupil; the social aspirations of some teachers; the shabby gentility of others, especially when their own children are needing higher education; prolonged contact with immature minds and the temptation to show off; the marking of homework; the drudgery of results; the conscientiousness of the teacher out to get results himself whatever happens to the children; enforced celibacy of women teachers; security of tenure; the doom of the bright eleven-year-old to be ground out ultimately as a member of the only profession he has seen in action—all these limit the teacher desperately as a master of the art of living.

There is a brighter side. Except when the various tests for higher education have let into the University or Training College a student who cannot stand the pace and gets a low degree or certificate, teachers are in one important way singularly blessed, in that they have been able, for longer than most of the community, to allow their gifts to expand in the most exciting parts of the heritage of their kind. The art of living for them will include excursions and pilgrimages into things of the mind and spirit which are within the reach of anyone who can obtain books (*pace* the scientist whose job is fifty miles away from any laboratory: I am aware of his cross). There are also obvious amenities in the profession which I will not mention lest I be identified with its enemies, on whose lips they occur most regularly.

To return to the consideration of the teacher's own higher studies. If English means as much to you as English means to me, then English, I have suggested, plays a great part in the English scholar's art of living. For that reason it would be a disservice to the English graduate or Advanced Course student in English to suggest to him that devotion to English is something slightly improper in him as teacher of young children and general form subjects; 'scrapping the subject' will react unfavourably on him as a man and as a master of the art of living. The most enjoyable opening of a year of teacher training, and I think the most satisfactory to the students, was one in which for the first week students met once a day the specialist 'Method' lecturer in the subject in which they had graduated and discussed with him the place of the subject in their own general education and interpretation of life; no other work was done in the week except any reading or writing which arose out of these meetings. This policy was certainly the reverse of 'scrapping the subject' and showed students who were entering on training as teachers the important place accorded by the Staff to their branch of academic work.

If it is agreed that a teacher's academic interests can fit him to take apprentices in the whole art of living, it may yet be objected that they handicap him as a teacher of elementary subjects to beginners. If for instance the teacher thinks himself superior to considerations of the psychology and physical health of children, if he neither studies these subjects academically in a training course or privately nor takes a wide commonsense interest in them in his job, then we shall have the 'University lecturer' type of teacher.

But this last person's imperfections as an educator are not the result of his preoccupation with his subject nor will they be cured by the compulsory liquidation of it; the only cure is the professional liquidation of him. Good scholars and good teachers are not two mutually exclusive classes. There are, of course, what one might call pure scholars: these should not take up teaching. If a man is genuinely drawn to teaching as a way of saving his soul or making his living, then the intensity of his

absorption in his subject will not make him likely to 'lecture' to his classes. With the exception of an occasional 'pure scholar', Training Departments find that students who did well in their academic departments do well in the Training Department, even when they enter on the course with distaste.

This seems to mean that a teacher's inability to make his material intelligible to beginners, if connected at all with his own preoccupation with it, results rather from his lack of true sympathy with it than from a joyful conviction that it is after all the only thing worth living for.

I would go further and suggest that if his job suits him and interests him, the advanced scholar is a better teacher of the elements of his subject than anyone else. A true mathematician will give a child help with his subtraction sums which will set him on the road to becoming a mathematician, when the mere 'born teacher' may by empirical methods find ultimately some trick of technique which will get the child over the hurdle of subtraction. I have seen this illustrated in elementary science lessons. If it holds good in the sciences, how much more will it not hold good in subjects like literature, music, and art which are an activity of the emotions in the McMurtry sense!

This point of view is subject always to the *caveat* I have put in above, that if a teacher is nothing but a mathematician then it should be recognized as final that it was a mistake to make of him a subtraction master or any other

kind of master and he should be withdrawn from the argument as an irrelevancy.

The popular fallacy that a specialist is necessarily one whose standards of what are really the elements of his subject are wrong reflects on the whole teaching profession, both on those who hold it and on those few of whom it is true. Those who hold it do so, I think, more as a popular opinion picked up outside school than as a considered judgment from experience. I have heard advocates of a compulsory English paper in the School Certificate maintain as a corollary of their views that English graduates must not be concerned in the setting of the paper. One is tempted to ask whether the schools which put in candidates for such an examination would have them prepared for it by the science master, the P.T. master, or the head master's clerk. Such views are an example of the absurdity of suspecting and therefore scrapping the subject.

A teacher will always be one with academic interests in the widest sense, because, outside certain branches of the technical school, he will be a highly intellectual person who has had an education which gave his mind something to bite on. The whole of him, as a balanced intellectual, must be turned by himself and others towards teaching if he is to teach; no part, and obviously no part that is necessarily a large part, can be disregarded, decently buried, liquidated, evacuated, dispersed, scrapped.

Nurses' Educational Training

E. Cockayne

TO understand the problems of Nursing Education it is necessary to know what subjects and examinations are taken by a nurse in her period of three years' general training.

During the first twelve to eighteen months she must attend a course of lectures in the following subjects: Anatomy, Physiology, Hygiene, the Theory and Practice of Nursing, First Aid and Invalid Cookery. Then comes the Preliminary State Examination in these

Matron, Royal Free Hospital, London

subjects, which includes two written papers, three vivas, and a practical nursing test with two examiners.

During the remaining eighteen months' training, lectures must be attended in the following subjects: Medicine, surgery, gynaecology, children's diseases, skin diseases, affections of the eye, ear, nose, and throat with the special nursing attached to each. Then follows the Final State Examination, which includes four written papers, two vivas, and

a practical nursing test with two examiners. If successful the candidate becomes a State Registered Nurse.

It is universally recognized that nursing is one of the hardest professions for women and one seldom meets the parents who are anxious for their daughter to take up nursing.

What is not so universally recognized is that actual nursing duties are arduous in themselves and that the educational side is an added strain.

This has been overcome in many hospitals by the institution of Preliminary Training Schools for nurses which provide a course of instructions for varying periods such as eight, ten, or twelve weeks. During this time the candidates receive lectures and demonstrations in the subjects of the syllabus for the Preliminary State Examination. These schools have proved most successful in providing a good foundation with a certain amount of individual teaching by the Sister Tutor.

A further experiment in Nurses' Education, known as the Block System, has been made in one or two hospitals. The nurses are taken away from all ward duties for one or two months each year during which time they receive the Doctors' Lectures together with special nursing demonstrations on the same subjects by the Sister Tutor. Excellent results have been reported so far but, as in the case of the Preliminary Training Schools, the expense involved (to hospitals already very much in debt) has been the greatest deterrent to general acceptance.

Future help to relieve the strain of the first year is likely to come from our Girls' High Schools and Colleges where a pre-nursing course has been recognised by the General Nursing Council to cover anatomy, physiology, and hygiene. The passing of the examination provides exemption from these subjects in the Preliminary State Examination and it is hoped that the scheme will be adopted by all Secondary and High Schools in the country.

Since the passing of the Nurses' Registration Act in 1919, and the setting up of the General Nursing Council, some progress had been made towards the standardization of nurses' training but all the evidence went to prove that the demand by far exceeded the supply

and, in many cases, girls had been accepted for training who were quite unable to pass the examinations. To overcome this, in 1937, the General Nursing Council introduced the Test Educational Examination, to be passed before entry by all candidates not holding the Matriculation Certificate, or the School Certificate of certain educational bodies.

This Examination was cancelled in September, 1939, for the period of the war, when there was such an outcry for more nurses. Every possible kind of criticism has been made about the training of a nurse and an acute shortage of trainees during the years 1936-37 ended in the setting up by the Government of the Inter-Departmental Committee on Nursing Services to enquire into present arrangements and to report any changes necessary to secure an adequate nursing service for the country. This enquiry had been asked for by the nurses themselves for many years. Unfortunately, the war interrupted the work of this Committee but not before a useful Interim Report had been published. This recommended, among other things, the establishment of a system of grants from National Funds to all recognised training hospitals in respect of the national work done by the training of nurses but, alas, these are not likely to be forthcoming for a very long time now and it is feared that the publicity given to the question of nurses' training is now almost forgotten. If only the doctors and the public generally, could be educated to ask for a State Registered Nurse, and not just for a nurse, many of our troubles would be overcome.

The above survey gives merely a broad outline of fact but now to the more human part of a nurse's training.

Many critics suggest that the amount of repetition in our training is unnecessary and that if a nurse is shown how to make beds and do other practical nursing treatments it is waste of time and energy to continually repeat them for three years. But it does take years of practice in bedside nursing, and in the development of observation, to mould a good nurse, for the educational field of a nurse is for ever widening.

With the advance of Medical Science

additional duties are constantly being passed on from the doctor to the nurse. Three years is a very short time in which to gain experience in the nursing of men, women and children in Medical, Surgical, and Special conditions—on day and night duty—in casualty and out-patients' clinics and in operating theatre technique.

It has been suggested that student nurses should attend in the wards for so many hours daily, or weekly, as medical students do, but that they should not form an integral part of the ward staff. This may be useful from the examination viewpoint but it would not produce good practical nurses. What is required is larger ward staffs to give the Sisters more time to do ward teaching and to prevent the nurses becoming physically exhausted. Hours have been greatly reduced during the last few years but, as the wards require to be staffed for 24 hours daily, the three period system of eight hours each for all trainees offers a solution well worth trying. The expense, and the shortage of candidates, have so far limited this experiment to one or two hospitals for, unless this plan can be combined with the Block System, it is found to be extremely difficult to assemble the nurses for lectures without interfering with the ward work or the nurses' free time.

It is to be hoped that, as a result of large numbers of Nursing Auxiliaries being employed during the war, many of them will decide to take general training later, and so relieve the shortage, and that the expense will be over-

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come by Educational Grants for training purposes.

But it must be emphasized that three-quarters of the experience required for passing the Examinations can be obtained in the wards and that Nursing, being one of the domestic arts, requires the development of the hands as well as the brain. The majority of the nurses love their ward work with its human contacts and, in many instances, relegate the theoretical side of their training very much to the background.

The theory and practice of nursing must, of course, go hand in hand and it is the duty of the Matron to keep the balance and not allow either to be neglected. Our nurses must have a selfless devotion to duty, a cheerful outlook, great courage and great calm, and the ability to take command of any difficult situation with confidence. These qualities are developed by contact with sick people but they are also supported by the knowledge obtained in the classroom.

New Education Fellowship News

Hospitality offer from U.S.A.

Dr. Carleton Washburne, Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois, has offered hospitality for up to 100 British children in the homes and schools of Winnetka. Children should be drawn from one locality or school. Winnetka is a relatively small community of 13,000, well known for its progressive schools. There are many very attractive homes with intelligent, worth-while parents. Evacuation would be arranged through the American Committee for the Evacuation of Children. Ocean passage would have to be paid but this could be arranged in small instalments. Further informa-

International Headquarters, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

tion from Miss Clare Soper, International N.E.F. Headquarters as above.

English Section Conference

A week-end conference will be held in London, 12th to 13th October, on the subject 'Educating for Freedom in a New Society'. Among the speakers will be Professor Fred. Clarke (Institute of Education, London University), Professor Karl Mannheim (author of *Man and Society*), Mrs. H. Bentwich (L.C.C.), and Mr. J. Compton (Director of Education, Ealing). Members of the N.E.F. will receive further notice. Other interested readers should apply to the Secretary, N.E.F., at above address.

Letter to the Editor

To the Editor of 'The New Era'.

MADAM,

I should like to make some reply to three of the able contributions in *The New Era* for July-August, 1940—those of (omitting their official titles) Messrs. Meredith, Jeffreys, and Thompson.

I am, I suppose, a voice from a past generation. Yet how similar are the problems of then and now, except in the enormous increase in their urgency! I welcome Mr. Denys Thompson's plea for 'clear civic thinking', for an equipment of our pupils against 'credulity, newsprint, and the careful propagandist'. I suggest, however, that he will have to make up his mind whether some propagandism—what I may call high-grade propagandism—is not necessary. Why, I ask, should our pupils, why should the modern citizen renounce the delights of credulity, the 'opium of the people', and take to clear thinking with all its toils, unless some concrete and emotionalized ideals have been either impressed on them or acquired in some other way? And to what authority must I go to get a list of those ideals? Or can educationists manage to get on without such synthetic things as lists?

Thirty years ago, in a book called *Day and Evening Schools*, I advocated for senior children much the same kind of thing that Mr. Denys Thompson is advocating to-day, namely some elementary acquaintance with Logic in the form of the study of the common human fallacies. What right has anyone to despair of democracy so long as education has not undertaken this most obvious of tasks? Ought not our despair to arise rather from the reflection that educational leadership is so incompetent that thirty years after the proposal has been made—a hundred years after, for I fancy Roebuck made it long before—the proposal has to be revived?

In 1912 I made (1) a set of administrative proposals (Suggestion Books, etc.), designed to improve educational leadership, guidance, and responsibility; (2) a set of four educational proposals (Celebrations, Civics, Cosmic Time Charts, and one other), designed to enlarge and emotionalize the education of the community. And now behold! In the total absence of any Seat of Provisional Authority or continuous tradition, the Celebration Proposal was revived (*Journal of Education*, October, 1939) by our poet-educationist, Mr. C. Day Lewis, and the Civics proposal (actually a century old, for Roebuck made it after the First Reform Bill) was revived by the Association for Education in Citizenship in 1934. Assuming that the proposals are sane or at least deserving of the attention they received, why this intolerable delay, this cyclic recurrence? Is not the world sufficiently near to moral bankruptcy and disaster?

As to the third proposal, namely, the compulsory hanging of Time Charts on the walls of senior schools, so definite, feasible, and Hitlerian a proposal

has not, I think, found a seconder. And yet, would it not do much to meet the difficulties of Messrs. Meredith and Jeffreys, especially the latter? Plainly, the main objection to his topical method of teaching history is that time relations (sequence, contemporaneity) would tend to be lost. But charts ever hanging as mute witnesses, and occasionally referred to pointedly, would supply, at any rate for the keener pupils, the time matrix or background for the more specific instruction given in classroom or assembly.

I submit with great earnestness the idea and the word 'Impression'. I hold that once our educationists can get away from exclusive devotion to the classroom and from the idea of teaching facts in a cold-blooded, examinational way, and accept the idea of conveying 'impressions' by means of Wall Charts and Celebrations, some of the worst difficulties at present facing our schools will vanish, and wholly new possibilities emerge. Our two writers are worried by the problem of the immensity and unmanageability of knowledge, even when grouped into subjects (and spoiled by the specialist). . . . The classroom idea and the subject idea are destroying culture.

Back, therefore, to the administrative question. Are not our writers themselves conscious of a certain administrative impotence? Will not their young teachers, after leaving college, be swallowed up by a system which will reduce to small value the training they have received? As a school inspector I was conscious, during three decades, of the converse kind of impotence. The gap between educational theory, as represented by our writers, and educational administration as represented by inspectors and by administrators, was complete. Never did we at County Hall (unless my memory plays me false) discuss any book by a professor of education or any great educational principle. As to 'synthesis', the idea was never dreamt of. This was one reason for my proposals of 1912, and without something of the kind I believe that our writers' articles, except for their influence on a few gifted and favourably situated teachers, will produce as much effect as water on a duck's back. There is no Brain Centre for Education.

What struck me in reading these articles was the note of pessimism, or at least of excessive modesty; little seems to be expected; the problems raised are admitted to be almost insoluble. I think they are indeed insoluble so long as (1) the classroom and the subject are accepted as the main units, (2) educationists allow themselves no real independence of the churches and the other outside forces which set the pace and tone. None of the writers in *The New Era* touches the fundamental question of motives, incentives, and a philosophy of life.

F. H. Hayward,

Late L.C.C. Inspector of Schools.

Book Reviews

Education and Social Change, by F. Clarke. (The Sheldon Press, 1/-.)

Professor Clarke is convinced that social change is forcing us to rethink the ends and means of education. He believes too that the English educational tradition is capable of adaptation sufficient to meet the change. He asks the ordinary citizen, as well as the teacher, to think about education, because we need something we have never had in England, a genuine popular philosophy of education. Fortunately, ordinary citizens are beginning to do so in numerous discussion circles up and down the country. Here is the very book—the obligatory book—for them, no less than for professionals who want to see the wood as well as their own familiar trees.

The first and most important chapter explores the social influences by which the forms of our educational institutions have been determined and their practical objectives defined. This is a brilliant and memorable piece of work, in which knowledge and thought enough to fill a considerable book have been matured and bottled in 27 pages of lucid writing. The present educational scene is then analysed in terms of the interplay of historical influences. Finally the lines are laid down of a comprehensive adaptation of our institutions to the needs of a new situation, in which the dominant factor of our past—an unparalleled security—has vanished.

Every word of this little book must be read and re-read by everyone who cares about education. To very many it will bring a new orientation of thought. To all it will give some fresh information and a quantity of material for discussion.

It would be a poor compliment to pretend that one agreed with everything in it and I shall take the liberty of picking a few bones with Professor Clarke. Not about his practical proposals, which call for detailed consideration, but about his general approach.

He repudiates as naive the supposition, implicit in the Spens Report, that educational readjustments, such as 'parity of status', can be expected to precede corresponding social change. But I am not sure that he does not fall into the same trap from time to time. Is there any use, for instance, in hoping that the Public Schools may be democratized by changes on the plane of educational administration alone?

On this topic, as well as in several other passages, it seems as though Professor Clarke's magnificent efforts to divest himself of the English habit of thinking about education in terms of an unacknowledged class-pattern had not been entirely successful. The notion of an *élite* remains at the back of his mind. There is talk of the secondary school's indispensable function as an instrument of social selection, of children 'destined for' the universities

and the professions, of the Public School recruiting from the national pool—which looks suspiciously like skimming the cream in the time-honoured fashion. The ease with which unchallenged assumptions intrude suggests that the dismissal of all discussion of class on page 48 is too facile.

This unacknowledged influence appears again in the treatment of liberty. Bureaucratic control is, we are told, profoundly repugnant to Englishmen and it is implied that it has hitherto been unusual. This is a class impression. The lives of the poor are quite extensively regulated by bureaucratic control. Professor Clarke admits (top of page 66) that, in education, the principle of State action 'is accepted by the ruling interests in so far as it applies to schools attended by the mass of the people'. But the whole thing goes much further than that, on one side of the social boundary line. A great deal of our talk about liberty is only true on the other side of the boundary. In this connection it is interesting to notice the two examples given on page 49 of 'essential guarantees of freedom'. Do they, at bottom, safeguard personal freedom or rights in property? One is reminded of Walter Lippman's exposition in *The Good Society* of the fundamental mistake of liberal democrats.

These criticisms actually do no more than emphasize the importance of the principles which Professor Clarke has so convincingly laid down. If a reader begins to perceive the long range of their application, he is only following in the steps of an author who has blazed a most promising trail.

V. Ogilvie

La Vie de France. (Published by Adam & Charles Black, Ltd.) Colette Vivier : **Didine et les Autres.** René Mabel : **La Vie de Chaque Jour en France.** P. Riether & P. Picard : **Paris et les Parisiens.** Georges Thierry : **Le Français et la Terre de France.**

This little series is most successful in giving an intimate picture of French life before the War. *Didine et les Autres* is a charming fairy-tale about a poor Parisian family and its neighbours. Although idiomatic, it is simple enough for quite young children, and so is *La Vie de Chaque Jour en France*, which describes the routine of a bourgeois family in a quiet provincial town. *Paris et les Parisiens* and *Le Français et la Terre de France* are more in the taste of 14-year-olds. *Paris et les Parisiens*, if slightly overloaded with guide-book information, is gay and colloquial: we meet the toughs of the Halles instead of staring at them from a distance, and a stranger who expounds the view from the Eiffel Tower 'was certainly a Deputy' because that is how they talk in the Chamber! The photographs are even better than those in *Didine* and in *La Vie de*

Chaque Jour en France. Le Français et la Terre de France interprets the labours and beauties of the Doubs, Rhône, Aude, Garonne and Loire valleys, the Côte d'Azur and the Atlantic coast, Mont St. Michel and Paris, also with photographs and maps. It is an admirable introduction to peace-time France, with only one flaw (a curious one in a booklet which deals with regional differences): David, the hero from Edinburgh, is called an Englishman instead of a Scot.

David has the luck of fairy-tale; he makes friends everywhere and sees everything. He stays with an educated Besançon family; he discusses the 'métayage' system with an intelligent and witty farmer; he sees the wheat and vine harvests, ports and electricity works; he watches Guignol at Lyon, a quarrel among provençal bowls-players which ends with dancing, and characteristic fêtes at Nîmes and Arles; he discovers a young man with a cause and crosses France from Sète to Bordeaux by water; he goes sardine-fishing off the Atlantic coast and explores the castles and villages of the Loire. When the aged Ford breaks down, and a suspicious farmer's wife threatens to put the dogs on him, he walks a little further and finds omelettes and Anjou wine at an old-fashioned inn. Well, such omelettes and wines, such good company and such intelligent sober workers, existed in peace-time France; *Le Français et la Terre de France* is in essentials no fairy-tale. Whether good M. Guillemeust of Besançon would really have packed his bag for an impromptu tour at fifty-five minutes' notice is questionable; it would surely have taken him several days to decide to leave his garden, and especially it would have taken him much longer to pack his bag; but he would have done it in the end. Travel was catching on in France, like 'le sport' and 'le scoutisme'. It was a modern touch to make Georges in this book like Germain and his sister in *La Vie de Chaque Jour* 'grands sportifs'.

Olga Martin.

Hitler Youth. By Hans Siemsen. (Lindsay Drummond, 7/6.)

In February 1936 a young man came to see the author in Paris, saying that he was a former member of the Hitler Youth and had escaped from Germany. Mr. Siemsen, who is one of a distinguished German family, checked up on his story and decided to put it on record. We may take it as an average boy's experience of the Hitler Youth. It tallies with what I heard from boys and parents in Germany two years ago.

It is an unpleasant story, which should be read both by those who are interested in Germany and by those who are interested in youth. Until last September fatuous windbags, in high places and low, kept telling us what wonderful things Hitler had done for Germany. Nothing that people with first-hand experience could say availed against the wishful thinking of those who were determined to see good in the 'bulwark against Bolshevism'. Two of the favourite pretexts for offering bouquets were

the fine things Hitler had done for youth and the moral purge he had carried out. This book throws a pitiless light on these two alleged achievements.

Unfortunately the toll of Nazi wrongs is not complete when we have counted up the victims of aggression and persecution. The deep wrong perpetrated on the minds and characters of young Germans who did not oppose it may prove to be the Nazi regime's most lasting and grievous legacy. It is essential that we should grasp the nature of the miseducation which has corrupted the minds and warped the consciences of German youth. For, unless the worst happens, the world will one day face the gigantic task of their re-education. In this connection Mr. Siemsen's experience with this one lad is interesting. 'Not many months had passed before he was a different person, with quite different ideas. Freed from the shackles of a wrong educational system, freed from the influences of the Hitler Youth, he developed within the space of a few months into a friendly, serious, thoughtful, and exceptionally kind-hearted young man'. But what is to be done with the millions who cannot be transplanted to another *milieu*?

Apart from its revelations of Nazi Germany this book has a value to all who are concerned with youth. In one conference after another we have discussed the needs of young people and the idea of organizing them. To many the Hitler Youth has seemed to be something worth copying—without its militarism. One lesson of this book, it seems to me, is that practically everything for which the Hitler Youth organizers can claim credit was on the wrong lines. The whole structure to which the 'leadership principle' gave rise was wrong. The type of organization was wrong. The type of activities was wrong—destructive of the mind without even the compensatory result of producing athletes. The whole thing is a forcible demonstration of how not to do it. It is significant that when a group of youths, in circumstances described in the book, were left to themselves they reverted to the kind of life and activities which characterized the pre-Hitler Youth Movements, rediscovered comradeship, and were happy.

All of this deserves careful study because the problem of youth has become acute in the last quarter of a century. Its exploitation for ignoble ends spells disaster to civilization. The Nazis have gone furthest in this demoralizing experiment, but others showed the way. It is at least possible that, with the best of intentions, we may have been playing with ideas whose practical outcome has been seen in Germany—ideas of leadership, perhaps, or a cult of 'feeling' in reaction against 'intellect' or an exaggerated notion of the claims of society upon the individual. Whatever be the truth on these and other points, we cannot afford not to learn from the horrible example now displayed before our eyes. The author and the publishers of this book deserve our gratitude for giving us this simply-written record of inside experience.

V. Ogilvie.

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NOW AND TOMORROW—II

Planned Freedom

Fred Clarke

Director of the Institute of Education ;
Author of 'Education and Social Change'

DISORDERED minds, it has been discovered, can sometimes be restored to order and sanity by what is known as 'shock treatment'. Strong injections of drugs or even the deliberate communication to the patient of a disturbing disease, have the effect of increasing the sufferer's disorder, and the uninformed onlooker will say, 'How much worse he is !' But just as the vigorous shaking of apples in a basket may bring them into some kind of order with the largest on top, so the shock to the patient in due course brings him to himself.

It should be noted that what happens in the process of recovery is not that the patient becomes a model person but that he is restored

to mastery of himself. He moves out of hallucination into sanity ; out of disordered beliefs that he took for reality, not into complete order but into a condition where he can distinguish reality from illusion. He now becomes a conscious and intelligent agent in his own recovery, for he recognizes the signs of his own trouble and learns to deal with it.

Something like this has been happening in the last year or two to self-deluded believers in an unreal Freedom. We do not mean that freedom, when you truly possess it, is unreal. Far from it. We mean only that the sort of thing many of us believed in as freedom (or thought we did) was unreal.

For many, the process of shock treatment

began somewhere about the time of the Munich affair and how desperately ill the patient seemed to be then ! The democracies seemed to have collapsed, to have lost genuine faith in themselves and their *credo*, and there was a marked shift, in many quarters, to some one or other of the competing absolutist faiths. Successive doses of shock, especially since the War began, seemed still further to increase the prostration of the sufferer. Now, however, he is beginning to come to himself and to take the first steps towards participation in his own recovery. To drop the metaphor, we are beginning to see clearly the realities of freedom : to know that it is a conquest and not a gift ; that its demands upon us may be grim and seem terrifying rather than agreeable ; that many who think they desire it discover that they do not really want it when they are faced with the price ; that to live in individualistic isolation from our fellows is to be self-marooned, not to be free ; that to 'do as you like' is to make real freedom forever impossible ; that freedom has to be *trained for* under specific discipline being a matter of specific achievement and not a universal primordial condition like the atmosphere or the sunshine. Men are not born free : they are born *to be* free, a very different matter.

Actually the more glibly we have talked about freedom and the more easy and agreeable we have made it appear, the more we have undervalued it. A prize of such worth is not so easily attained. One recalls the great words of Milton :

'I cannot praise a fugitive and cloistered virtue, unexercised and unbreathed, that never sallies out and sees her adversary, but slinks out of the race where that immortal garland is to be run for, not without dust and heat.'

Here we are then, purged of our illusions, and ready to learn if we can, the sterner and deeper lesson. What is that lesson ?

Many answers could be given, but perhaps the thing we need to learn most in our work of education is that freedom is the issue of discipline. No apology need be made for the use of that ominous word. Unless we can restore it to the purposes of making free men there is no hope for us. Many of us were

saying long ago that unless democracy could evolve and apply its own characteristic form of discipline, it was lost, and would deserve to be lost, like the herd of demented swine.

For discipline, rightly understood, is simply the growing framework of the free man. There can be no freedom without structure, the structure that we call Personality.

The agent of this discipline is just ourselves in the kind of society we form, the powers with which we endow it, the organs of action with which we equip it and the authority we bestow upon it, in order that by law and government, by education and influence, it can train men to be free. If Rousseau had not been so grossly misrepresented, sometimes by blind anarchists, sometimes by equally blind martinets, we should have seen that that was what he was trying to say in his writings about government and about education. How am I to live under a law that makes me more free, just because, in reality, it is the law of my own being ? That is the question he was trying to answer. He faced it, because he saw he had to face it as the essence of the matter, unlike some of his mistaken disciples who appear to deny that any such question exists.

We are suggesting, then, that the achievement of freedom is conditioned by the discipline of an enlightened social order which sees in the steadily-won freedom of its members its own supreme end and justification. True, there are choice spirits who can attain to the very heights of freedom by self-assertion in the name of a higher law *against society*. Such was the freedom of Socrates, of Sir Thomas More, and of Christ Himself. But this is the exalted freedom of martyrdom where the price is death.

The ordinary man cannot attain to such heights, and must rely on the agencies of a society that actively supports him in his growth in freedom.

We know well enough now that no society just 'runs of itself', under the guardianship of some providential but mysterious 'harmony of interests'. We know, too, or ought to know, that in a world like this, complex and dangerous as it is, you must take the trouble to *organize* freedom if you really want it. That is, you must *plan* your society. Not plan it as an

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engineer plans a bridge, or an architect a great building, with complete blue-prints of the whole and the details settled once for all. One thinks of planning rather in the sense of continuous conscious control in the light of ends and ideals worked out into all the practical details. For instance one step that would be required by systematic planning in England would be the substitution for the present Board of Education of a Ministry designed to care for the whole growth of the young from birth to maturity.

Nor is there any choice in the matter. Unless we consciously plan and control a society to give us what we do want we shall get one that gives us very much what we don't want. The story of how the Nazis came to power in Germany is full of warning on the matter for all who are able to see.

For many of us a considerable revision of loose and uncritical ideas will be necessary if we are to preserve our values in such conditions. So far from there being any demand upon us to sacrifice values (such as initiative, creativeness, self-reliance, and the rest) the requirement is rather that we get a clearer

vision of them, and especially of the conditions in which they have now to be fulfilled.

Thus we shall have to get rid of the truly fantastic idea that organization is a subtraction from freedom. The truth is people who think this have not even begun to understand what society is, still less what a personality is. One recalls a remark by that profound student of society, Coleridge :

'A million of men, united by mutual confidence and free intercourse of thoughts form one power and this is as much a real thing as a steam-engine ; but a million of insulated individuals is only an abstraction of the mind, and but one told many times over, without addition, as an idiot would tell the clock—one, one, one, etc. . . .'

How 'free' is even a brilliant football half-back in a disorganized team, or a citizen in an air raid when there is no A.R.P. ?

So in our planned society we shall have also to learn lessons about obedience and authority as conditions of freedom, and get rid once for all of anarchial notions which, if they were given full rein, would make freedom wholly impossible both for us and for everybody else.

Schools and the War News

WHEN children come to school heavy eyed from broken sleep ; when they pass shattered houses on their way, and when collecting shrapnel has ousted collecting cigarette cards, it is impossible for the most escapist of us to avoid giving war news. It intrudes itself into every subject in most unlikely ways. The world empires of the Old Testament recall the dreams of a modern dictator and take on a new reality, and 'Where are the gods of Sepharvaim, Hena and Ivah ?' has a cruelly modern tang to it.

The war has covered the pages of the atlas, and a geography lesson becomes a jumping-off ground for a discussion on new boundaries, on essential products giving a new value to some debatable ground, or on what used to be and what now is.

Earlier British history links itself oddly with our problems of to-day. One class has seen the hordes of English sea-rovers utterly destroying the British-Roman civilization ; the hordes of Danes destroying the learning of Northumbria, and has jumped forward to our own shattered dreams of 1940—instead of a 'fourth year' working in a lavishly extended building, a depleted school scurrying constantly into air raid shelters. Yet Ardan came out of the Western Isles to bring back Christianity to the North ; Alfred redeemed from loss much of the literature of Northumbria. And our shelters have carefully avoided the site of the proposed extensions. I believe that the children feel themselves as never before, a *part* of history.

Even the most trivial things become 'war news'—food-waste, bottle-tops, waste-paper take on a new importance, and the every-day people are suddenly seen as heroes on a battlefield that comes on to our very door-steps. Non-delivery of the school milk leads to a discussion on the far-reaching effect of disturbed transport. 'Our own' air raid warden, the parent of one of our own children, on duty night after night in the school play-ground, becomes a local example of the self-sacrificing zeal of a host of ordinary people.

The giving of definite instruction varies considerably with the forms and the form-mistresses. One will shrink from even mentioning the war ; another, with greater wisdom, adopts the children's own attitude of quiet acceptance of a new way of living and thinking.

The B.B.C. 'News for Schools' is admirable, given simply enough for not very bright eleven-year-olds, crisply, concisely, and with a pleasant absence of talking down to the children. Its great value, I feel, lies in helping to preserve a sense of proportion between what has happened 'in our road' and in the world.

We have done our best to combat the busy rumourist, and have found one of our shelter recreations most useful for this—the old game of 'Russian scandal', showing how a whispered message can alter during its journey.

In all their talks, present-day conditions are seen rather as a tunnel, dark and long, but with daylight waiting in the distance. The older girls realize from experience some of the many social reforms which followed the last war. They see in their own immediate neighbourhood the contrast between a post-war housing estate and the drab streets of a previous generation ; they recognize that the modern open-air school is a pleasanter place than the heavy buildings of the early twentieth century. They realize that much remains to be done in housing, in education, still more in coping with the vast evil of unemployment.

And with a child's often inarticulate but very real vision, they see in these present evils the inevitable end of a nation that attempts to build entirely on material foundations, forgetting God. And I think that they are realizing too that 'nations' are not something vague and far-off, but just ourselves, and people like ourselves.

At all times the schools must attempt to lead the children to search for truth, so far as it is humanly possible to do so, and the difficulties of the present situation must not cause their efforts in this direction to be diminished.

N. Denison,
Head Teacher,
Hasland Hall
School,
Chesterfield

A difficulty which presents itself in the attempts to train an individual to make an objective search for truth lies in a tendency which has grown up not to expect the truth to be presented to us. Much discussion of propaganda has led us to suspect information from sources directly associated with any organized body having a definite plan or policy. We suspect that there must be 'an axe to grind'. But rarely do we make the effort to determine where truth gives way to untruth, and we seem to be content to accept those statements which are most often presented to us in a variety of ingenious ways. So our children are growing up in a world in which untruth is vaguely suspected but truth is not sought after with much enthusiasm ; a world in which truth gives way to expediency.

A further obstacle to the objective search for truth is the tendency of each individual to identify himself with someone, some organization, or some idea. When this tendency is allowed full play, all evil may be seen on one side, and all good on the other. How true this is of children who will eagerly and quickly form themselves into opposing groups or gangs. The danger of this tendency at a time like the present lies in the fact that bitterness and hatred may be engendered in the child for the group opposing that with which he is himself identified. This must be guarded against, and it is the task of those concerned for the future of this growing generation to ensure that loyalty to truth, beauty and goodness, wherever these may be found, is developed in the children.

In face of these problems and dangers the schools

must make some attempt to deal with war news, for we must remember that the children now in the schools will be the adults whose task it will be to see that the new world order, about which we hear, is brought into being. This the children cannot do if they grow up with fear and a sense of insecurity in their hearts and minds, or if a feeling of hatred and bitterness is engendered in them.

It does seem, therefore, that it would be useful to present news to the children without embellishments in the way of biased comment, suggestive intonation in spoken accounts and the use of emotional appeal.

This is, however, a difficult and delicate task, and may not succeed in preventing difficulties arising as a result of the child's also obtaining its news from other more popular and more insistent sources. Neither is it reasonable, even if it were possible, to suggest that these ways of receiving news should be closed to the child.

A discussion of the news with older pupils is, however, helpful in preventing the difficulties mentioned above. Such a discussion could help to clarify the pupils' impressions of the news they have heard or read. They could be led to subject information received to a close examination and to consider it in the light of certain questions: is the source of this information likely to be reliable? Has information from this source been reliable in the past? Does this information fit in with other facts which I do know are true? Does this statement agree with previous information which I have been given? Does this information tend to make me feel proud, humble, indignant, or any other feeling? If I am roused in this way is it due to the facts involved or to the manner in which the information was given or received?

Teachers should attempt to develop this enquiring attitude of mind, even though it may at times make one's immediate task more difficult.

The comparison of different accounts, different opinions, and different comments on the news should be undertaken since many different newspapers are taken into the homes of the children. If some of the older boys work as 'paper boys' they have the opportunity of seeing a number of different newspapers, and discrepancies in the different accounts need little pointing out to them.

At the same time, it should be possible to lead the pupils to view our own immediate difficulties in relation to those of the rest of the people on this earth, and in this way help to maintain a sane and balanced outlook when the tendency would be to become overwhelmed by the immediate dangers and difficulties of the local situation.

The organization of our resources to meet the needs of war can be compared with the organization of our resources in the period of peace. The pupils will recognize changes in organization and conduct which are worthwhile, and in this way their thoughts lead them on to consider planning for the future. In regard to such a discussion, the teacher's task is to keep it alive; his comments should be only such as to stimulate thought, to correct inaccuracies of

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statement, and to help the pupils discriminate as far as possible between what is fact and what is an expression of opinion.

The teacher must avoid making it his aim to pass on his own ideas and theories. His purpose is accomplished if he succeeds in inspiring independence of thought, sincerity of motive and courageous action.

'MUCH to be said on both sides' would appear to be very true in considering the question of giving or not giving war news to school children.

G. M. Clark,
*The 'Violet
Markham'
School,
Chesterfield*

In this school (of 400 girls of ages ranging from 10.10 to 15.2 years) one part of the problem is automatically solved as there is no wireless. On enquiry, however, it is found that about 80 per cent. of the girls have a wireless set at home and that a large proportion of the 3rd and 4th year girls hear the news daily (the ordinary news bulletin).

These girls show great interest in comparing the varying accounts of events given in different newspapers, both with what 'it said on the wireless' and also with those given in other newspapers; and it is obvious that the B.B.C. news is recognized as being authoritative.

The junior classes (1st and 2nd year) have taken little interest in the discussion of war news as such, though they are closely and vitally concerned in local news or news of their relatives serving with H.M. Forces or engaged in some form of war-work

and in seeking to take their part in some of the various national war efforts (knitting, National Savings, making salvage collections). Mercifully, these children (and, to some lesser extent, the seniors) who are undoubtedly feeling the strain of anxiety, of 'war-talk' and of lack of sleep are still able to lose themselves and their worries in these efforts and in their general school activities, mental and physical. This being so, while we have no desire to ignore or evade realities, it would seem unnecessarily cruel to bring to bear upon them also the increasing pressure of the latest developments in the war.

With these classes, however, as indeed with the senior group, war news is introduced—not as a separate 'time-table subject' but as it naturally, and inevitably, enters into other subjects. For instance, when girls actually in the school are being medically examined for 'seavacuation', the position and amenities of the different Dominions make geography a very personal matter; place names occurring in the news are traced and the importance of the place together with the reason for its importance, discussed; the possibility of countries which are being studied suddenly acquiring new international importance or fame is considered. The importance of different countries and the value of our empire, in providing necessities becomes more obvious as the difficulty of bringing various ingredients required for Domestic Science lessons increases and war news has often to be introduced here to explain the lack of some commodity and emphasize the growing importance of well-balanced meals, composed of available food-stuffs. In history, war news is dealt with, when possible, in connection with the period being studied, but it is found that any worth-while discussion of the importance and significance of daily events or movements is possible only with girls who have some knowledge of the growth of modern Europe (and even then to be approached with caution). For this reason, it is with the senior girls only that any attempt is made 'to know the causes of things', to trace the series of events and the kind of thinking which has produced this or that result. To some extent, parallels are found between international history and local and school government, without undue interference on the part of the teacher and, by their discussions, lecturettes and debates, these girls show that, in their opinion, knowledge, clear thinking, non-selfish planning in co-operation with others still hold a hope for the future. At the same time, their own difficulties, their own personal relationships, prove to them the magnitude of their problem, the problem of democracy.

THE work was carried out with a group of boys and girls of twelve and thirteen, working half-time in an emergency school in an industrial London borough. Some of them had had no schooling for six months; others had had a little schooling in reception areas, sometimes under very bad conditions; while others again had worked in home tuition classes for a few weeks. They were drawn from about eight pre-war schools, including second-

ary and central schools. Their home background and mental capacity were as varied as their schooling experiences.

Introductory talks brought out the following points: there was a complete absence of bitterness against Germany, although a decided feeling that Hitler 'must go'; they were keen partisans of small states assailed or threatened by strong neighbours, *e.g.* Finland. There was a hesitancy at first to express views—perhaps as a result of the 'listening-in' habit.

The class was first questioned as to the effect of the war on their own lives; *e.g.* evacuation, black-out, rationing. From this, we went on to discover that in neutral as well as belligerent countries, the course of everyday life was interrupted and upset by the war. This, with much study of maps, illustrated the close interdependence of all nations. As many of their parents worked locally in the docks, and had suffered unemployment through happenings in other countries, the children were able to give telling examples of this interdependence. The simile of a quarrelsome neighbour in a small street was appreciated, and the children realized that it was a case for the police, not of fisticuffs among neighbours. This point of 'international police' intrigued them: one boy suggested that it should be recruited from countries which had not been to war for fifty years; but a girl objected that such a force would be too inexperienced to be effective.

Attention was drawn to the fact that some war-time measures promised better things in peace—*e.g.* the grant to the colonies. There was as yet no consciousness of the difference between war-time expenditure on destructive things and peace-time expenditure on social services and construction. In an unplanned, grimy borough, there is much scope for imaginative schemes, and some good suggestions came from the children.

It was suggested that during the sessions when they were not in school, they should listen to the wireless and keep records of the most important items heard (this to lead to subsequent discussion); and that they should keep scrap books—attention being drawn to the usefulness of maps and cartoons. Lists of the subjects of leading articles were also to be kept and compared.

There were some interesting results. About half a dozen had produced really fine scrap books. They had taken the trouble to buy large books which would take the full width of a newspaper. No books were just 'bloodthirsty'—when they illustrated the more gruesome side of warfare, there were maps and letterpress correlated. One boy had made little notes against his pictures, *e.g.* 'I went over this battleship when I was at Portsmouth'. 'My uncle was in this regiment in the last war'.

Incidentally, one of these books was shown to the school, and inspired a small girl of eight to sew together with large stitches some small sheets of kitchen paper, out of which she made her own scrap book.

Unfortunately, exigencies of war-time education broke up this class before we had gone far and before

a radio set could be obtained. The work left me with a feeling that there is great hope for the future, if the children can be kept in touch with adults who believe that the world is large enough and rich enough for the peoples of all nations to live in it comfortably and happily. The Cockney humour of these children responded instantly to the points of the cartoons from all countries—they enjoyed the jokes against their own country as much as those against others. Is this a clue towards solving the problem of international relations? Perhaps all nations have taken politics too seriously. If we can learn to laugh together at ourselves and at one another, we may find the way to a saner and happier world.

CHILDREN, like adults, have added war news to their topics of conversation, and teachers are diverting an everyday interest to educational advantage. News has always been valuable in the teaching of history and geography and provided illustrative material for almost every lesson; now the responsibility of knowing the daily news is a serious one to be borne by everyone, including future citizens in our schools. Our fight is partly a fight to ensure that future generations fall victims neither to propaganda nor to regimented thinking. To prevent social disaster a healthy active interest in the daily news must be encouraged.

WHAT CAN CHILDREN UNDERSTAND OF THE NEWS?

Much of the news is missed by children, and they tend to suspect news if it is altered to be comprehensible to different age groups. News is of universal currency; if altered it becomes propaganda. Juniors absorb little of the news; to them, as to most seniors up to 12+, 'nation', 'people', 'country', 'state', etc., are difficult conceptions, vague geographically, and meaningless economically and racially. Juniors identify national characteristics and international events with individual statesmen; seniors 'know' more of these statesmen and take a more impersonal attitude to news. Most children, even Juniors and children of 'B' attainments, can repeat news information often without comprehension—an obviously useless accomplishment.

TREATMENT

Little can be done, except casually and for the clarification of ideas, with Juniors and 'B' seniors of 11-12. 'A' seniors of this age group could in one lesson a week study 'The World To-day' and be led to make comparisons between the present and the period normally studied. To the 12-13+ group a more definite attempt can be made to teach 'History in the Making'. Here, comparisons can be made with the past, present movements and tendencies discussed, and impressions of the news corrected and stabilized. For 13-14+ group one period a week can be devoted to current affairs, when causes and movements can be traced, past mistakes analysed and means for avoiding their repetition suggested. This age group can, in history, science and geography

lessons, be taught to feel the *rate of change* of civilization. From general school relationships and from scripture these children can be helped to feel their obligations to society, and they may be led to discuss the possibility of directing social change.

In addition to these general directions, the following particular devices may be used to vitalize the interest in news. Each child should hear the news every day. For this purpose the B.B.C. News for Children Broadcast, followed by the Daily Service may be used in place of the normal school Assembly, and would avoid the organizational difficulties of assembling a whole school twice in one session. Some repetition of the news is necessary to correct misapprehension and to imprint the facts which might normally be lost. It will be found useful to encourage the writing of diaries on specific subjects, e.g. Diary of the Fighter Command, etc. In the class room can be arranged a picture gallery of famous people, suitable pictures being mounted from the front pages of news magazines, and a weekly information competition of a 'These names make news' kind can be run in one corner of the room. News maps drawn by the teacher, or Horrabin's 'News Maps' may be used to good effect.

For social planning, films dealing with social reforms, town planning, industrial processes, etc., can serve as a basis for class discussion.

Throughout the whole national life in war time runs the desire for news: let us use this desire in our children to obtain the best results for them as individuals and for society as a whole.

THIS is a full-range girls' school from eight years upwards. A basis of education for citizenship runs through the whole curriculum, an endeavour to develop a sense of responsibility as well as the power to think clearly in everyday affairs. To this end the children need some knowledge of the broad political and economic facts of the modern world, and, nowadays particularly, contact with the news.

D. Starmer-Smith, Head Mistress, The Girls' School, Wolverton, Bucks.

This teaching, implicit in all school activities, is more definitely concentrated in the Citizenship Class which is composed of the oldest and of the more advanced younger girls of the school. The class listens daily to the B.B.C. News Commentary; on Wednesdays to the Current Affairs lesson, and on Fridays to the Series 'If I were British'.

The chief value of these lessons lies in the discussions which follow immediately, some of which reveal a point to be cleared up when further specific knowledge has been gained. Somebody's father is a police officer; another girl knows a nurse or welfare worker; the Local Council Office can give information; there may be a book in the library that would help, and always the class has available for research the valuable files, kept by the teacher-leader, where up-to-date information is culled from newspaper and magazine on: education; parliament; governments of other countries; food; health; the post office; the press; preservation of the countryside, etc.

We are a reception area and during the first

year of war absorbed into the school children from over ninety different schools ; hence we have many types representing varying degrees of standards of living : the rich girl with a nanny in the background eats her midday meal alongside the Willesden slum child. Consequently opinions are diverse, and a single item of news may draw quite different responses from the children, and discussions may be lively at times.

Now we are receiving numbers of girls from wrecked homes, private evacuees from the coastal towns and official evacuees from London. News commentaries and Current Affairs lessons take on a new significance ; problems of social reconstruction now and after the war become increasingly important ; pertinent problems within our own school community lead to awareness of bigger ones looming ahead in our own country, and then to those of other countries.

The Government announces a scheme for free or cheaper milk. 'Why should some children receive free milk ? How do German children fare for milk when so much is used in manufacture ?'

Communal food centres are advocated. 'Who is to do the communal washing-up for the school lunch girls ? Should the crockery used be private or public property ? Should wages be paid to workers in community centres ? Equal to or less to those of munition workers ?'

The Nazi rulers deprive people of freedom. 'What measure of freedom and individuality can our children retain in their school life with less equipment, less space, larger classes and proportionately less individual attention from teachers ? What is the reaction of girls from other schools to our free atmosphere ? Can a bigger society than ours be given as full a measure of freedom ?'

Rumour can create extraordinary situations. 'Why do not parents make sure of the exact truth instead of believing the tales juniors often take home ?'

The National Savings total is growing rapidly. 'What will happen to our money if we lose the war ? What has become of French, Belgian, Dutch people's money ?'

We have a school newspaper. The girls decided months ago that no one particular paper or magazine was entirely suitable, so instituted their own. On a large sheet they pin cuttings of news and pictures gathered from many sources. Watching this paper, we learn much of the popular trend of thought ; we are glad that fashion in dress is still news, and takes its place with the war interest.

The 'Interest Table' too is a good register. To it girls bring anything they consider interesting (work connected with school is banned). A marigold with five heads and a picture made of stamps lie beside socks knitted for the comforts fund and the bomb splinter picked up by a nearby pond.

We think the children ought to be given a chance to know, analyse and discuss the news, but the very fullness of the school curriculum, none of its peacetime activities abandoned or curtailed, is a safe antidote to any possibility of war obsession.

THE war is having no heavier consequences for any section of the community than for the infants of our Elementary Schools. Before the war they were, to a large extent, the lucky ones of the country's school population.

Helen D. Dedman, Their schools were not bound
Head Mistress, by tradition any more than they
John Scurr (Junior were governed by an examina-
and Infants) L.C.C. tion standard. There was room
School to experiment, freedom to try
new ways and to reject old bad
ones. They were not entirely fortunate, for it is
always very difficult to make adults not in direct
touch with small children realize how immeasurably
important is this early education. Education Com-
mittees always vote less money for 'Infants' than for
other children ; when new schools are to be built
it is usually the infants who are to be served last :
'reorganization' with its chances of new life in the
schools was directed mainly towards providing
benefits for the seniors.

And now the war has come. In September, 1939, schools all over the country were closed ; in evacuation areas because it was hoped that the children were going away ; in reception areas because arrangements had to be made to accommodate local children and evacuees ; in neutral areas because the schools were not provided with air raid shelters. Gradually, some opened again, a few for full-time education, but more for part-time, and in all kinds of buildings, village halls, barns, scout huts, even churches.

What had happened to the infants ? Only a small proportion of them went out with school evacuation parties, for mothers could more easily bear to part from their bigger children, so that many of them were left in evacuation areas without schools. Where there was not enough room for all the children in the over-crowded double-shift schools in the reception areas, provision was made first for the bigger ones. Where schools were closed until air raid shelters were provided, the infants were admitted last. School evacuation parties suffered a sad fate, for those who received them were interested to see that the burden should be evenly shared, and so each school party arriving at a centre was evenly shared among all the villages and districts around. That meant that each school party found itself spread round among many places, and each place found itself invaded by small sections of several school parties. This resulted in many small groups of infants being left in charge of teachers who had no knowledge of their ways or needs, and the joys and advantages of the modern infants' school had disappeared. Even in the big emergency schools which grew up in London, the infants were not catered for until after Easter this year, and even then they were only part of the general school, using such part of the premises, such teachers and apparatus as happened to be available, and not such as was specially chosen and suitable for them.

Even the youngest of the nation's children are effected by the war. Babies are removed from their

homes, and the careful routine of their days and nights has to be adapted to their new residences, to rationing, to air raid warnings. Even the small ones play war games. There was one small boy of three who early in the war took to lying about on the floor with his eyes closed. When at last those who tried to get him up grew too insistent he said 'Don't talk to me. I'm asleep. I'm waiting for my false alarm.' Instead of 'Are you Oxford or Cambridge?' the small boys now ask, 'Are you British or German?' and some unfortunate ones are made to be 'Germans' to give the 'British' the pleasure of routing them. The little girls are nurses, tending injured airmen. Infant evacuees' letters home are illustrated and decorated with pictures in crayon of bombers and fighters, barrage balloons, army lorries and tanks. Their vocabulary is affected. One little girl, asked 'Do you like your new home?' replied 'Yes, thank you, I am as happy as a sand

bag'. Another said 'If you take my ball from me, Hitler will shoot you'. Even in the tinies' eurhythmic lesson, when asked to assume a graceful attitude at the end of a phrase of music, the little boys all take aim with an imaginary rifle or machine gun.

The war bogey raised by grown men invades the whole of their little world, and yet, in spite of all, their faith in adults remains. Herein lies the only remedy—or rather palliative. 'Infants' are too young for direct teaching about the war, or for receiving war news (even the B.B.C. News for Children is not for them). The best we can do for them is to protect them as far as possible from the alarms and horrors of war, and to try still to teach them kindness, tolerance, love for their fellows and a respect for truth and justice, in the hope that they may be able to deal with the chaos we shall leave them, and out of it build a better world.

Children in the War

D. W. Winnicott

**Director of the Child Department,
Institute of Psycho-Analysis**

TO understand the effect of war on children it is first necessary to know what capacity children have for the understanding of war and of the causes of war, and of the reasons by which we justify our fighting.

The various contributions published here first bring out the fact that what is true of one age group is not true of another. This may be rather obvious, but it is important, and I will try to put into words what it implies.

What is also important, but not so clearly brought out in the reports, is the variation between one child and another apart from age differences. This I will also try to describe.

One could criticize some of the contributions in that they do not indicate the nature of the child's thoughts, feelings, fantasies, into relation with which the war news is to come.

Age Group Variations

Tiny children are only indirectly affected by war. They are scarcely wakened from sleep by guns. The worst effects come from separation from familiar sights and smells, and perhaps from mother, and from loss of contact with father, things which often cannot be avoided. They may however come into contact with mother's body more than they would ordinarily do, and sometimes they have to know what mother feels like when she is scared.

Quite soon, however, children begin to think and talk in terms of war. Instead of talking in terms of fairy stories that have been read and repeated, the child uses the currency of the adults around him, and his mind is full of aeroplanes, bombs and craters.

The child leaves the age of violent feelings and ideas, however, and enters a period of waiting for life itself, a period which is the teacher's heyday, since ordinarily a child between five and eleven years is longing to be taught and told what is accepted as right and good. In this period, as is well known, the *real* violence of war can be very distasteful, aggression appearing only in play and fantasy and with romantic colouring. Many never leave this stage of emotional development, and the result may be harmless, and may even lead to highly successful accomplishment. Actual war, however, seriously upsets the lives of adults who have stuck here, and this gives the cue to those who have charge of children who are in this 'latency' period of emotional development—to select and enlarge upon the non-violent side of war. Miss Clark describes how this may be done through the use of war news in the geography lesson; this town in Canada is interesting because of evacuation, this country is important because it contains oil or has a good harbour, that country may become

important next week because it grows wheat or supplies manganese. The violent side of war is not stressed.

A child in this age-group does not understand the idea of a fight for freedom, and indeed could be expected to see a great deal of virtue in what a Fascist or Nazi régime is *supposed* to provide, in which someone who is idealised controls and directs. This is what is happening inside the child's own nature at this age, and such a child would be liable to feel that freedom meant licence.

In the majority of schools the stress would be laid on the Empire, the parts coloured red in the maps of the world, and it is not easy to show why children in the latency period of emotional development should not be allowed to idealize (since idealize they must) their own country and kind.

A child of eight or nine years might be expected to play at English and Germans as a variation on the theme of 'Cowboys and Indians', or 'Oxford and Cambridge'. Some children show a preference for one or other side, but this may vary from day to day, and many do not much care. Then comes an age at which it is expected that, if the game is one of 'English and Germans' the child shall prefer to identify with his own country. The wise teacher is not in a hurry to find this.

Discussion of the case of the child of twelve and over becomes complex because of the great effects which result from the delay of puberty. As I have said, many people partially retain the qualities that belong to the so-called latency period, or return to these qualities after a furtive attempt to attain a more mature development. For them one can say that the same principles hold as for the real latency child, except that it is with more and more misgiving that we tolerate them. For instance, whereas it is quite normal for a nine-year-old to like to be controlled and directed by an idealized authority, it is less healthy if the child is fourteen. One can often see a definite and conscious hankering after the Nazi or Fascist régime in a child who hovers on the brink, fearing to launch away into puberty, and such a hankering should obviously be treated with sympathy, or be sympathetically ignored, even by those whose more mature judgment on

political matters makes admiration of a dictator an ugly thing. In a certain number of cases this pattern sets in as a permanent alternative to puberty.

After all, the Authoritarian régime has not sprung out of nothing; in one sense it is a well-recognised way of life found in the wrong age-group. When it claims to be maturity it has to stand the full test of reality, and this brings out the fact that the idealization in the Authoritarian idea is itself an indication of something unideal, something to be feared as a controlling and directing power. The onlooker can see this bad direction at work, but the young Nazi himself presumably only knows that he blindly follows where his idealized leader leads.

Children who are really coming to grips with puberty and the new ideas which belong to that period, who are finding a new capacity for the enjoyment of personal responsibility, and who are beginning to cope with an increased potential for destruction and construction, may find some help in war and war news. The point is that grown-ups are more honest in wartime than in peacetime. Even those who cannot acknowledge personal responsibility for this war do most of them show that they can hate and fight. Even *The Times* is full of stories that can be enjoyed instead of an exciting adventure story. The B.B.C. likes to link Hun-hunting with the pilot's breakfast, dinner and tea, and exploits over Berlin are called picnics, though each exploit brings about death and destruction. In wartime we are all as bad and as good as the adolescent in his dreams, and this reassures him. We as an adult group may recover sanity, after a spell of war, and the adolescent, as an individual, may one day become able easily to pursue the arts of peace, though by then he will be no longer a youth.

The adolescent, therefore, may be expected to enjoy actual war bulletins as given to adults, which he can take or leave as he pleases. He may hate them, but by them he knows what it is we are so eager after, and this clears his conscience when he discovers that he has himself the capacity to enjoy wars and cruelty as they turn up in his fantasy. Something corresponding to this could be said of adolescent girls,

and the differences between boys and girls in this respect very much need working out.

Variations according to Diagnosis

It seems strange to use the word diagnosis in the description of presumably normal children, but it is a convenient word for emphasising the fact that children differ from each other widely, and that differences according to the diagnosis of character types can cut right across differences that belong to classification by age groups.

I have already indicated this by pointing out the great allowance that has to be made at such an age as fourteen, according to whether or no the child had plunged into puberty dangers, or has shrunk back from them to the more sure, if less interesting, position of the latency period. Here we are reaching the borderline of psychological illness.

Without attempting to distinguish between well and ill, one can say that children can often be grouped according to the particular tendency or difficulty they can be seen to be contending with. An obvious case would be the child with an anti-social tendency, for whom war news tends to come, whatever his or her age, as an expected thing, something he misses if it is not there. In fact, such children's thoughts are so terrible that they dare not think, and they deal with them by acting out things that are less bad than those they might dream about. The alternative is for them to hear about other people's awful adventures. For them the thriller is a sleeping draught, and the same may be said of war news if it is sufficiently lurid.

In another group is the timid child, who easily develops a strong passive-masochistic trend, or who suffers from a capacity to feel persecuted. I think that such a child is worried by war news and by the idea of war, largely because of his fixed idea that the good loses. He is defeatist. In his dreams the enemy shoots down the fellow-countryman, or at any rate the tussle is never ending, with no victory, and developing more and more cruelty and destruction.

In another group is the child on whose shoulders the burden of the world seems to lie, the child who is liable to feel depressed. Out

of this group come those capable of the most valuable constructive effort, whether it take the form of the care of the younger children or of the production of what is valuable in one or other art form. For such children the idea of war is awful, but they have already experienced it within themselves. No despair is new to them, nor any hope. They worry about war just as they worry about their parents' separation or the illness of their grandmother. They feel they ought to be able to put it all right. For such children I suppose that war news is terrible when really bad, and exhilarating when really reassuring. Only there will be times when despair or exhilaration over their internal affairs will show as moods, irrespective of the situation in the real world. I think these children suffer more from the variability of the grown-ups' moods than from the vagaries of the war itself.

It would be too big a task to enumerate all the character types here, and unnecessary since what I have written suffices to show how the diagnosis of the child affects the problem of the presentation of war news in schools.

Background for News

It may have become clear from what has been said under these first two headings that in considering this problem we must know as much as possible of the ideas and feelings that the child already and naturally owns, on top of which the war news will be planted. This unfortunately complicates matters considerably, but nothing can alter the fact that the complexity does in fact exist.

Everyone knows that the child is concerned with a personal world, which is only to a limited extent conscious, and which requires a deal of managing. The child deals with personal wars within his or her own breast, and if this child's outward demeanour is in conformity with civilized standards this is only the result of a big and constant struggle. Those who forget this are repeatedly bewildered by evidences of breakdown of this civilized superstructure, and by unexpectedly fierce reactions to quite simple events.

It is sometimes imagined that children would not think of war if it were not put into their heads. But anyone who takes the trouble

to find out what goes on beneath the surface of a child's mind can discover for himself that the child already knows all about greed, hate and cruelty, as about love and remorse and the urge to make good, and about sadness.

Little children understand the words good and bad very well, and it is of no value to say that to them these ideas are only in fantasy since for them this reality of their imaginary world can be greater than the reality of this real world is to us. I must make it clear at this point that I am talking of fantasy, largely unconscious, and not of fantasizing or day-dreaming or consciously operated story-making.

It is only possible to come to understand children's reactions to the giving of war news by first studying, or at any rate allowing for, the immensely rich inner world of each child, which forms the background for whatever is painted in from to-day's external reality bulletin. As the child matures he becomes

more and more able to sort out external or shared reality from his own personal inner reality and to let each enrich the other.

Only when the teacher really knows the child personally is the stage properly set for making the best use of war and war news in education. Since, in practice, the teacher can know the child only to a limited extent, it would be a good plan to allow the children to do other things—read or play dominoes—or to wander off altogether whilst the B.B.C. war news is being given.

It seems to me, therefore, that these reports usefully start us off in a study of an immense problem, and perhaps our first task is just to realize and recognize its immensity. The subject is certainly worth study, for, like many another, it carries us far beyond everyday educational procedure and reaches down to the origins of war itself and to the fundamentals of the emotional development of the human being.

Producing the Broadcast News Commentary for Schools

Evelyn Gibbs

The School Broadcasting Department

WHAT proportion of children hear the broadcast news bulletins? How many of them see a newspaper? What items of news interest them? What items frighten or worry them?

These were some of the questions asked at a joint meeting of members of the B.B.C. School Broadcasts Department and of the Central Council for School Broadcasting when we were considering the proposed News Commentary for Schools.

In certain respects our brief was clear and definite from the start. We were asked to produce a News Commentary, not a News Bulletin; to choose certain items in the news for 'educational elucidation'. We were also to provide reassurance on points which might be worrying the children.

We knew, too, that we should be broadcasting, in the main, to children at their morning assembly. Therefore we must assume our audience to range in age from nine to

fifteen and to have no books, maps or writing material available during the broadcasts. It was decided therefore to aim at a middle point—the twelve-year-olds—and to try to make all our explanations, geographical references and so forth, independent of class-room illustration.

By the time we were due to start this new series of broadcasts we had received several reports from the B.B.C. Education Officers. During their frequent visits to schools they had collected a mass of information from teachers and children in answer to our various questions, and during the early days of the broadcasts, and especially for the first week they—and a number of teachers too—sent in daily detailed criticisms which were of enormous help to us in adjusting all the details of the Commentary to the needs of our audience.

There were of course many contradictions, but it seemed that in general one could assume that a fairly large proportion of children over

eleven heard at least one news bulletin a day or, less often, saw a newspaper. How much of the bulletins could they understand? 'The top class', says one report, 'aged 13+, consisting of 14 boys and girls: five of these, all girls, had heard this morning's 8 o'clock news; only one of these could remember anything she had heard of it.' Or again, 'Far more boys of all ages listen to the B.B.C. bulletins than read the papers. More read the papers as age increases . . . Those under 12 showed very little understanding of the news, though many listen.'

So much for the evidence from schools on the need for elucidation—what about reassurance? 'This needs a lot of investigation . . . There is some evidence that most children under 12 are not worried about things that would be anxieties to us until they impinge on one of their five senses.' This view was supported by evidence from another school: 'In answer to the question "Is there any particular news that you specially listen for?" the great majority of the 12-15 groups said, "News of where the raids have been"—in other words, implying anxiety as to whether home had been bombed (this was an evacuated school). The younger boys, under 12, showed a charming indifference to the fate of their parents and included one answer, "News if Musso has brok his nec" !'

The first week of the broadcasts was naturally to some extent experimental. But before that time came we had made several trial scripts. There were one or two June mornings, too, when, thanks to the co-operation of a London head teacher, we were able to try them out on a class.

Our speaker for the first month was Mr. Hilton Brown. Since then he has continued to give the commentary for a fortnight at a time, alternating with Mr. Colin Wills and Mr. W. E. Williams. All three of the broadcasters have gone to endless trouble to try to produce the kind of commentary the schools seem to want.

I think all of us working on the News Commentary found we had a lot to learn, though none of us was new to school broadcasting editorial technique. With our time limit of five minutes (now able to be extended

to seven or eight if necessary) the unnecessary word or the clumsy phrase must be even more severely pruned than usual. That was, of course, an excellent discipline, but it meant that we could not include in our Commentary certain subjects which needed more than five minutes for their proper treatment.

We were anxious to keep our technique as fluid and adaptable as possible so that it might be used to the best advantage, whether for the varying bag from the day's news or for specific advice or information to schools in an emergency. Nevertheless we found ourselves obliged to lay down some guiding lines. One question which arose at the start was, how many subjects ought we to attempt? In the early days it was a great temptation to rove rather airily over three or four topics, drawing this conclusion or making that synthesis. The response from schools was unanimous; two subjects are quite enough—or even only one.

The choice of subjects is, of course, of vital importance, and in these days, when all news seems to consist of accounts of mutual air raids between ourselves and the enemy, particularly difficult. Obviously the subjects chosen must be of reasonable interest to children, but they must also be of sufficient importance in the general body of the news to be worth comment. Another point: children must not be given the impression that something—bad news especially—is being withheld from them. There was the morning, for instance, when the black news came through of the sinking of the *City of Benares* with the loss of eighty-three children's lives out of ninety. Such news could certainly not be omitted. We decided therefore to give items of this kind as headline news—devoting perhaps half a minute to them at the start of the commentary and then passing on to the one or two topics of the day.

We have received some interesting reports from schools showing which news items are of greatest interest to children. Some topics are sure winners. On one day Hilton Brown dealt at some length with two news items—the relationship between Egypt and Italy and affairs in Palestine. As a tail-piece he gave the story of the French boys who, though under military age, decided to make their way

to England ; how they came, on foot or on bicycles, to the French coast and then crossed in small fishing-craft or whatever vessels would take them. Two classes in one school were asked to write out what they remembered of the day's News Commentary. Many children omitted one or other of the main items, every child without exception wrote with evident enjoyment and often at great length about the Young French Legionaries.

That was to be expected. The children's reactions are not always so easily predictable. We had supposed that news of activities by other children would be popular ; yet here is a free comment from a twelve-year-old boy : 'I think the News Commentaries should be made longer and say more about world news instead of the speaker talking about children collecting aluminium and other things.' There is, of course, enormous interest, especially among the boys, in air warfare and all deeds of heroism : 'I wish that they are longer and that they give recorded despatches from men like C. Gardner', and 'I wish the B.B.C. could make the News Commentary more interesting by reading the heroic deeds men do.' Again, 'I think the News Commentaries make you feel thrilled as if you would like to be one of the heroes told about in it. It makes you like your country even greater.' All these are from boys.

Well, having caught our hare from amongst the meagre bunch that lope across our daily horizon, how are we to serve it ? Educational elucidation and reassurance are the recipes. The first is a straightforward but by no means easy business. Obviously there are the difficult words that need explaining—isolationism, marshalling yard, military objective, depth charge. There are the remote places that need locating : Tchad, Dakar, Transylvania (and all without assuming that the listening child has a map within reach). There are the historical references to be cleared up : the French Revolution, Napoleon's attempts at invading this country, the rebuilding of St. Paul's Cathedral after the Great Fire of London. There are the links to be made in this way with school work. But there is a great difficulty about doing this kind of thing with the news in war-time. If an explanation—especially a broadcast one—is to illuminate any point for

a child it must be solid, real and vivid ; it must provide images on which his mind can work. The adult news bulletin, the newspaper article, the message on the tape machine, sometimes contain no material of this kind. On many subjects they are of necessity composed of the half-statement, the guarded phrase, the diplomatically balanced conjecture. Such language only creates an image in minds where it can evoke a response because they are already stored with experience and fact. What can an island-dwelling child see if you tell him that 'incidents have occurred on the frontier' ? Our most striking example of this difficulty was in the report of our clash with the French fleet at Oran. The story 'broke' in the early morning and we had nothing more to go on than the laconic official communiqué that 'French vessels in ports in North Africa were offered certain conditions', and that, as the French admiral was unable to accept them 'action had to be taken'. What were the proposals ? What was the action ? Did we fire a broadside, drop bombs, ram the French vessels, send out a boarding party ? Nobody knew. Adults can communicate a general idea by a colourless formula, but children need the specific facts. Sometimes imagination or research can produce them, but not always.

While our attempts at making the news intelligible to children might often fail to reach the mark, we soon found that our efforts at reassurance could easily overshoot it. None of our broadcasters is normally sentimental or woolly in style or voice ; but they all found that any conscious attempt at offering the brighter side of the picture tended to sound like crude optimism or belligerency. In war-time we all tend to feel that we are surrounded by cross-currents of propaganda. A deliberate effort to be reassuring can easily lead one into an appearance of dishonesty. The evils of this are obvious. Not only do we want to avoid presenting the children with ready-made judgments, we also risk losing their confidence if we give them information they ever have reason to doubt. We came to realize that we must tackle the problem more subtly. One way is through the friendly reliable personality of the broadcaster. Hilton Brown is already

to many children something of an institution. His familiar voice settles some of their problems or sends them off to find their own answers to others. Another healthy antidote to the jitters is a cool examination of the facts; this can often emerge spontaneously from the attempt to explain difficulties. The news becomes part of history; it crops up in a geography or science lesson. In this way it loses much of its power to frighten or alarm by becoming closely associated with the familiar framework of everyday life. Last, and perhaps most important of all, is the ability to discern, in a toppling world, the things that remain. From time to time,

almost jostled out of sight by bombs and long-range guns and motorised units, come news of heroism or achievement outside the sphere of war, stories like that of the flying-boat *Clare*, which made a routine trip, as in peacetime, across the Atlantic; or of the scientists gathering on the Karoo to study the eclipse of the sun. Nor is it only for their peace of mind that we offer news of this kind to the listening schools. They, as much as any of us, perhaps more, must be kept aware of the things of permanent value which survive even during the turmoil of war and which we can use as foundation when we come to rebuild our lives and institutions.

Some Adolescents and Post-War Problems

MR. PAUL ROBERTS has sent us a small batch of essays by some of the older pupils at Frensham Heights on problems of reconstruction. As he comments himself:

‘They seem to show an aliveness to the problems but, as I think may be expected, not much originality as regards their solution. It is interesting how this question of Federal Union has got hold of them—they have never been lectured about it here—we tried to get Curry to come and talk about it but it fell through—their ideas about it are due to reading or meetings they may have attended elsewhere. Curry kindly sent us a copy of his book which is in the school library. I think the interesting point is that whatever the practical governing politicians may think of Federal Union it has a spark of idealism about it that appeals to youth.’

Most of the essays give fairly detailed and comprehensive accounts of the workings of Federal Union. As Mr. Roberts says, the idea of such a union, and of Mr. H. G. Wells’ declaration of the Rights of Man has evidently fired the imagination of these young contributors. And though on the whole they seem over hopeful that a well-devised machinery of government will end all our troubles, there are thoughtful comments on the need for personal good-will and what Miss Clarke calls ‘non-selfish planning’. The pithiest of such comments comes in the peroration of John B., a Polish boy of 18:

‘We have finally arrived at the conclusion that the Federal Government may be the salvation of humanity, but it would be disastrous to stop here. We must not treat the Federal Government as something to blame if the things go wrong.

Everyone will have to sacrifice something when we put up the Federal Government. It would probably mean the end of British Empire and certainly of German Imperialism. It is in ourselves therefore that we have to seek the salvation of humanity, in our common sense, benevolence and sincerity. These qualities will be especially important in the process of disarmament, which must be complete. It seems that it is up to us now, not the Government, to save the world.’

The comment on the end of the British Empire is not mere generosity with other people’s goods, for he says elsewhere:

‘Great scientific inventions have abolished distances. Frontiers become more and more artificial every day. We may leave frontiers as they are now or as they were before the war 1914-1918 as long as they do not serve to separate people but to unite them!’

—a remarkably philosophic statement in view of the history of his country.

All the contributors are concerned over the future of Germany. Perhaps B.D.—a girl of 17—shows the frankest awareness of the difficulties of the problem:

‘The one argument against this system (Federal Union) seems to me to be “What in the meantime will the totalitarian countries be doing?” They, who are not going to be roped in until the last, may object to it and may continue to carry on their lives of aggression. Until they actually join the Union they will not be forced to disarm. So they will probably take advantage of our temporary concentrations on the Federal Union and become all the more powerful. It is obvious that the whole world could not be roped into this

United States of Europe at once, so naturally some form of classification is necessary, but is it safe to leave the Totalitarian countries until the last? Would it not be better to deal with the harder problems first? Germany, with the threat of Colonization standing over her and with all Nazi influence wiped out, should be quite agreeable to joining as this would allow her to hide herself, crushed with the sense of defeat, in the general turmoil of setting up a United States of Europe. Japan, Spain, Russia, Italy, all of these may have to be defeated by the democracies before they will allow themselves to join. Totalitarianism must be replaced by a new religion, a religion that will see unemployment, greed, avarice, enmity, and cruelty fade from this earth.'

Peter D., a boy of 15½, is the only contributor who mentions education :

'The future of democracy depends on education. The aim of education should be to produce "cultured" people, by "cultured" meaning, in the rather hackneyed phrase, a proportionate "sense of values", i.e. a certain outlook on life which places human, personal and spiritual values before material values. It should aim at producing far-seeing people, whose outlook is not restricted by petty individual circumstances. It should seek to destroy the masculine bias in certain professions, and the tea-cup triviality which condemns woman to sit, knit, walk in parks, gossip, and do nothing. Education should aim at a classless society; it should cease its barren policy of "neutrality"; it should train the citizen in civic duties and procedure; an appreciation of the rights of man.

'All schools should be State-organized, compulsory and universal. The schools should be co-educational, and as self-governing as possible. The curriculum should *ensure first a certain practical training*, and then remain "general" as long as possible; study of history, and particularly literature (English, French, Italian, German, Spanish), for literature represents the past experience of mankind. This general literary training together with the civic knowledge we have mentioned, and a course in political economy,

and also the elements of philosophy, and the best of the different religions, should be taught to all, for as long (within reason) as possible, till each begins to specialize. Universities should be open to all.'

Jennifer F., a girl of 16, has a lighter touch than most of the others (though the grimmest wit is the young Pole's, who says of the bombing of civilians :

'In Poland, the Low Countries and France we experienced the ambiguity of the phrase "Women and children first".'

She says :

'England's home policy will be no less vital and will have to be simultaneously attacked. The unemployment problem will have been increased tenfold by the men and women discharged from the fighting forces and the closing of the armaments industry. The whole war organization will have to be adapted to peace-time conditions different from the pre-war ones. Drastic alterations must be made to the whole economic system of this country and they will only be a success if carried out on a socialist basis. The nationalization of all railways and factories will help to ensure "Production for consumption and not for profit". Everyone must be given a chance to justify his existence and private capitalism shall eventually be suppressed for ever. Then and then only can the relatively minor but nevertheless urgent problems of 40-hour weeks, euthanasia and national theatres be examined. Finally, it must be remembered that every individual has an equal right to live, and that it is only by international co-operation that a better world can be evolved out of all this appalling chaos and disorder.'

These papers, and Miss Griffin's account of her discussion group of young adolescents in an industrial London borough make one realize how eager these ex-children are to equip themselves for the solving of their future problems. I should like to see the two groups merged for a week of discussion, and to hear them at it. Something even livelier would emerge than I have been able to convey by extracts from these papers.

New Education Fellowship News

International Headquarters

Part of International Headquarters has been evacuated to Bridgwater, Somerset. Unexploded bombs recently arrived outside our office and we were not allowed access to our part of the house. We worked for a time in a small basement room. Then this had its windows blown out and the heat cut off so we felt it was time to seek a quieter spot. The London office will still keep open and the

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

International Secretary will spend part of her time there and part in Bridgwater.

English Section Conference

The conference of the English Section announced for October had to be postponed. The programme was complete and we were on the point of issuing publicity when bombs fell near both the halls we had been considering as possible centres for the

conference. We shall try again about Christmas time.

Offers from U.S.A.

The Secretary of our American Section, Mr. Redefer, offers to take two British children into his home. Anyone interested in this kind offer should write to Miss Soper at International Headquarters at above address.

Dr. Pryns Hopkins, known to many English members, is now in Santa Barbara, California, and writes that a very fine property there would probably be put at the disposal of any British school that could transfer and finance itself there. Further particulars from International Headquarters.

Professor Hamley goes to Iraq

Professor H. R. Hamley, a co-opted member of the N.E.F. Executive Board, has left for Iraq, where he will spend six months. He travels *via* South Africa and we hope very much that he will meet our President, Dr. Beatrice Ensor, as he passes through. There is a very active group of the N.E.F. in Baghdad, which will be delighted to have Professor Hamley among them.

ASSOCIATION FOR EDUCATION IN CITIZENSHIP

The Association for Education in Citizenship, whose office has now been moved to Morley College,

61 Westminster Bridge Road, has decided for the present to discontinue publication of its journal, *The Citizen*, and to accept the hospitality of *New Era* for one number each term. This number will be prepared as a result of consultation between the editors of each paper, and will deal particularly with subjects related to education for citizenship. Members of the Association for Education in Citizenship will be entitled to these special numbers and it is hoped that they will, in their individual capacities,¹ subscribe to all the numbers.

¹ Members of the Association who would care to do as Mrs. Hubback suggests should send 5/- to *The New Era*, Latimer House, Church Street, Chiswick, W.4.

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Christmas and the Recorders²

Fred Fowler

The Modern School, Silsden, Keighley, Yorks.
Joint Author of 'The School Recorder Book'

OUR feelings with regard to the approach of Christmas must be very different from those of former years. 'Peace on earth and mercy mild' seem out of reach as bombs fall on the schools, and yet I think all teachers will agree that we must try to make this coming Christmas as normal as possible for the children. We must try to capture the spirit of the four-hundred years-old carol, which runs :

Make we merry, both more and less,
For now is the time of Christmas.

Let no man come into the hall,
Nor groom, nor page, nor yet marshall,
But for that some sport he bring withal.

If that he say he cannot sing,
Some other sport then let him bring,
That it may please at this feasting.

If he say he nought can do,
Then, for my love, ask him no mo'
But to the stocks then let him go.

Make we merry, both more and less,
For now is the time of Christmas.

When we consider the form of our merry-making in school we naturally think first, as the above carol suggests, of singing. Quite frequently school concerts consist entirely of voices raised either in song or play, for few schools are fortunate enough to have their own orchestras. Children at many schools, however, have for several years now received instruction in recorder playing, and these young woodwind players will be eager to help 'at this feasting'. Their playing at Christmas will not be a modern innovation. A previous article of mine in this journal made reference to the great popularity of the recorder in this country during the sixteenth and seventeenth

² We are publishing this article this month so as to give readers who wish to do so a reasonable time in which to put Mr. Fowler's precepts into practice before Christmas.

centuries, and there is no doubt that all the music-makers of that period, with their various instruments, would be busily employed wherever Christmas was celebrated, be it in the hall, the home, the church or the ale-house.

The recorder most generally used in the schools of to-day is the small and inexpensive descant model. Let us consider just a few of the ways in which we can introduce these instruments at our Christmas gatherings. Recorders blend delightfully with voices, and so we can use them to add variety to our vocal items. Descants played on recorders to carols sung with pianoforte accompaniment are most effective and relieve the monotony of numerous verses.¹ An alternative treatment for an occasional verse is for the recorders to play the carol while the voices sing the descant. Two-part songs can be treated in the same way.

Many rounds and catches are appropriate for Christmas time, and with these also delightful results can be obtained by the blending of voices and recorders. Here is one way which has been tried successfully :

Commence the round in the usual way, the voice parts entering in turn. As each group reaches the end of the round let the members repeat it straight away but this time playing it on their instruments. After playing it once or twice each group can sing it again. We thus have a blend of voices at the beginning which gradually mixes with the tones of the recorders, leading us to a middle section where recorders alone are heard, and then this process is reversed and voices alone bring the round to a successful conclusion. This method demands that the voices be always absolutely up to pitch.

I suppose that at some point in the programme the recorder players will wish to perform alone. If they have worked through some tutor such as 'The School Recorder Book' (E. J. Arnold) they will be acquainted with many seasonal pieces which the teacher can weave into a little 'Christmas Overture' with pianoforte accompaniment. 'The Holly and the Ivy', 'Good King Wenceslas', 'The Furry

¹ Suitable carols and descants are to be found in Novello's 'National Songs with Descants' (e.g. 'The First Nowell' and 'I Saw Three Ships') and the fa-burdens to the carols in 'Songs of Praise' can be used in a similar manner.

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Day Carol', 'The Coventry Carol', 'Green-sleeves', and many others will be found in the book just mentioned.¹

We must not overwork our young players, but I think they will be in demand when Country Dances and Percussion items are included in our merrymaking. Many people prefer an accompaniment of recorders to that of the pianoforte for the Country Dances. Plenty of dances that are not difficult for young recorder players to play at the required tempo are to be found in 'The School Recorder Book' and Novello's 'Country Dance Tunes'. Two very appropriate items would be 'The Health, or The Merry Wassail', and 'Sellenger's Round', for hundreds of years ago a person wrote :

'What a sad Christmas—no carols, wassails, bowls, dancing of Sellenger's Round in moon-shine nights about Maypoles.'

¹ Perhaps more advanced players will wish to perform longer items specially composed or arranged for recorders. Messrs. Boosey, Paxton, Schott and E. J. Arnold of Leeds publish many such pieces, and details of all these will be found in 'The School Recorder Handbook' (E. J. Arnold).

The combined efforts of the recorder players, the percussion band and the pianoforte also produce a popular item.²

So far I have dealt with the use of descant recorders, and no mention has been made of the other members of the 'consort'—the treble, tenor and bass instruments. Being more expensive, they are not used as much as the descant model, but wherever they are found in schools there is no doubt that the scope of the work is considerably increased, and the blend of tone is a constant joy.

With descant, treble and tenor instruments we can dispense with the pianoforte and provide instead a pleasing three- or four-part woodwind accompaniment to our carol-singing. Messrs. Schott publish 'Twelve Christmas Carols' arranged for recorders in this way. Similarly, a pianoforte accompaniment is no longer necessary when playing together with the percussion band, and Messrs. Paxton have arranged many pieces for descant, treble and tenor recorders with percussion, string parts also being available. Our accompaniments to the Country Dancing can also be improved if we have a few treble or tenor instruments. Many dances require numerous repetitions of the tune and monotony can be avoided if the larger recorders occasionally add a second part. The possession of a bass instrument affords the delight of enjoying some of the chorales harmonized by Bach. 'In Dulci Jubilo', to mention just one, would be a very appropriate choice. There is also much more recorder music available when we can combine treble and tenor instruments with our descants.³

In difficult times music is ever at hand to cheer and strengthen us. The Tudor poet wrote :

'Where griping grief the heart would wound,
And doleful dumps the mind oppresse,
Then Musick with her silver sound
Is wont with spede to give redresse ;
Of troubled minds for ev'ry sore
Sweete Musick hath a salve in store.'

² Messrs. Paxton and Co., Ltd., publish many such arrangements, the separate parts are inexpensive, and string parts are also available. A detailed list of such items will be found in 'The School Recorder Handbook' (E. J. Arnold).

³ Lists of suitable music will again be found in 'The School Recorder Handbook' or in the catalogues of the publishers already mentioned.

New Books and Books to come

It is encouraging to discover, in these troubled days, that authors can still find time to think and to write, and that publishers manage, in spite of their many difficulties, to produce books of educational, psychological and philosophical value.

This list cannot, of course, be a comprehensive one, but in it we hope to bring to the notice of readers some of the recent publications and books to come which have attracted our attention.

EDUCATIONAL

- Allen & Unwin, Ltd. . . . *The World and the Atom*, by C. Møller and E. Rasmussen. Foreword by Professor Niels Bohr. Translated by G. C. Wheeler. (October 24.)
La Pronunciación del Idioma Inglés, by Professor William Stirling. A scientific study in Spanish of English pronunciation.
- E. J. Arnold & Son, Ltd. . . . *The A.L. Physical Training Record Book. No. 135. Rhythmics and Simple Dances* (price not exceeding 4s. 6d.).
- Cambridge University Press . . . *The Concise Cambridge History of English Literature*, by George Sampson—a digest of the 15 volumes of the famous *Cambridge History of English Literature* (for 1941). *The Cambridge History of Poland from Augustus II to Pilsudski, 1697-1935*, by W. F. Reddaway, J. H. Penson, O. Halecki, R. Dyboski.
- Methuen & Co., Ltd. . . . *Speech in the Schools*, edited by J. Compton, Director of Education, Ealing—a symposium of all aspects of speech-teaching in schools from the age of five to the age of 18. *Life and Thought in the Greek and Roman World*, by Cary and Haarhoff.
- Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd. . . . *Horabin's Atlas History, Vol. II.*
- Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd. . . . *Number Rhymes and Finger Plays*, by E. R. Boyce and Kathleen Barlett—a unique collection of traditional and original rhymes for young children, particularly valuable in present conditions.
- University of London Press . . . *Story Tellers of Britain*, by L. du Garde Peach, which presents dramatically the history and development of fictional history. *The Primary School Teachers' Guide to Speech Training*, by Anne H. McAllister.

PSYCHOLOGY

- University of London Press . . . *The Factors of the Mind*, by Cyril Burt, Professor of Psychology in the University of London, in which the validity of 'factor-analysis' is examined and the nature of the mental factors so reached.

HISTORY, SOCIOLOGY, ETC.

- Allen & Unwin, Ltd. . . . *An Enquiry into Meaning and Truth*, by Bertrand Russell, based on the author's 1940 William James' Lectures at Harvard University. (In preparation.)
- Cambridge University Press . . . *Political Propaganda*, by F. C. Bartlett. *The Democratic Ideal in France and England*, by D. Thomson.
- Constable & Co., Ltd. . . . *The Realm of Spirit*, by George Santayana, the fourth and final volume of *Realms of Being*.
- Eyre & Spottiswoode, Ltd., in conjunction with William Collins & Co. . . . *English Saga, 1840-1940*, by Arthur Bryant.
- Methuen & Co., Ltd. . . . *Modern Europe, 1871-1939*, by D. C. Somervell of Tonbridge School.
- Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd. . . . *The Causes of the War*, by Professor A. Berriedale Keith. *Europe's Apprenticeship*, by Dr. S. G. Coulton.

GENERAL

- Allen & Unwin, Ltd. . . . *Phaidon Press Art Books: Sculptures of Donatello. Etruscan Art* (in preparation). *Roman Portraits* (recently published). 10s. 6d.
- Cambridge University Press . . . *The Seasons of the Gardener*, by H. E. Bates, with illustrations by C. F. Tunnicliffe.
- Methuen & Co., Ltd. . . . *Nine Mime Plays*, by Winifred Jones, with a Prefatory Note by Gordon Bottomley. 5s. net.

Book Reviews

Music for Recorders. Edited by Edgar H. Hunt.

These attractive compositions, beautifully produced and edited by Edgar H. Hunt, will give many hours of pleasure to Chamber Music Players.

Mr. Hunt's excellent choice of music is edited in Six Parts, each being a clearly-printed book containing Minuets, Trios, Sonatas, Sonatas for Treble Recorders, Movements from Concertos by Handel, Mattheron, Telemann and William Babell for various combinations of instruments; Descant Recorder and Violin, Treble, Tenor and Descant Recorders with Violin Cello or Viola da Gamba and Continuo.

A selection of music like this is invaluable for the Recorder Library, which is still in the making for many. It is delightful for class teaching and ensemble playing, full of interest from a technical point of view, and giving ample opportunity to the players to express a lovely standard of performance through musicianship; the beauty in the works of these composers being in their simplicity, which has been carefully preserved in every detail and is worthily matched by the balance and clarity of the printing and lay-out.

*Dorothea M. Dalrymple,
of the Wilts Rural Music School.*

A First History of English Life, Volume 2.

By Williams-Ellis and Fisher. Illustrated by Wilma Hickson. (Published by Methuen & Co., Ltd. Paper 1/9, Limp Cloth 2/-.)

Those of us with grey hairs, but with the hearts of children, can but regret that we were born too soon to be brought up on *A First History of English Life* by Williams-Ellis and Fisher. Looking back to our own first history lessons, what stodgy memories many of us have of Mrs. Markham's 'Questions and Answers'! (What the questions were is no longer clear, and I, for one, never knew the answers.) Or perhaps history in those days resolves itself into a dreary sequence of dates—interminable and boring, and entirely divorced from facts. Only the child blessed with a good memory and an ambition to gain marks was able to reel them off in parrot-like fashion with some degree of enthusiasm. There were, of course, genealogical trees, but no one had thought of adding to them, as Mrs. Williams-Ellis and Mr. Fisher have done, little pictures of the kings and queens, with descriptive notes: for example, John signing the Magna Carta and not looking too pleased about it, with the superscription 'John—died 1216—who was a bad lot'. And we know why when we read in the following chapter that 'he offended all the important people in his kingdom. He annoyed the Church . . . and refused to give in when the Pope sent special envoys to reason with him. He annoyed the barons by being unfair about feudal dues. He appointed dishonest sheriffs who used all sorts of tricks in getting in the

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HAPPY HOURS WITH THE DESCANT RECORDER
Three books of well-known melodies arr.
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Send for list of recorder music—methods,
solos, duets, trios, recorder and piano, etc.

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King's taxes. But what the barons minded most was that John was a very unsuccessful fighter. If he commanded an army it was sure to be beaten.' So no wonder that at last 'the clergy and the barons got together' and forced John to sign the Great Charter, the 'foundation stone of English liberty'.

This volume, the second of a series of four (the last two are not yet published) is described as the Medieval Volume. Without any burdensome mass of facts, it gives a vivid picture of life in England from the time when 'William's Conquest Changes Things' to the Battle of Bosworth, when Richard, mortally wounded, fell from his horse and his crown fell into a thorn bush, where Henry Tudor found it hanging and put it on. Between these dates, the evolution of the social system, the reason for and influence of the Crusades, the war in Scotland and France, the part played by peasants and Guilds, writers and books, is made clear as day. The Feudal System, which could be so dull, becomes, with the fables and tales which accompany it (and which, incidentally, must be the result of much research) and the delightful illustrations by Wilma Hickson, an exciting story of English life, and when we come to the 'War and Dark Deeds' which surrounded the pitiful life of King Edward the Fifth there is all the romance that any child could wish. One can imagine a young eight-year-old clamouring for more—'And then? And then?'

At the end of each section, the authors give chapter and verse for the information given in the previous chapters, under the heading 'How do we know?' This is followed by 'Things We Don't Know', 'To This Day' (pointing out the survivals from the past), and 'Things to do' (ingenious suggestions for incorporating into games the knowledge gained). It is even suggested, after 'Towns, Scientists and Sorcerers', that a little black magic should be tried: 'To Raise a Storm at Sea', or 'To Kill an Enemy Slowly', but the authors are careful to add that the methods recommended sound so horrid that they are glad that nobody nowadays believes a word of it.

A chronological table at the end of the book will be useful to teachers, and can be used at their

discretion, but the charm of this history lies in the fact that, although it is written in the language of a child, there is no suspicion of 'writing down' to the

level of the child. Its young readers will have to be careful that the grey-haired grown-ups do not borrow and fail to return it.
Maud Bigge.

Letters to the Editor

To the Editor of the 'New Era.'

DEAR MADAM,

The *New Era* is to be congratulated on devoting a number to the problems of teacher training, and congratulated on its contributors. They have achieved that desirable aim, of stimulating their readers to reflection, reflection which in one case at least may stimulate others to further thought.

It seems to me that we have lost sight of the wood for the trees. We shall never solve the teacher training problem adequately so long as we regard it as a problem entire in itself. The much to be desired extension of the course, the raising of the status of the profession, even an increase in salaries, will not solve all our problems nor even the most important.

Miss Phillips makes the assertion that 'on the whole, the average two-year student has a lower intelligence quotient', and further states the facts that he or she '(2) comes from a lower economic level, (3) has a narrower range of personal experience', and so on.

Now it is, I think, a fact that these average two-year students have for a period of about seven years been educated and trained and in daily contact in their secondary schools with teachers with a 'higher intelligence quotient', from a higher economic level with a wider range of personal experience, and who have achieved at 18 a greater degree of personal maturity, etc. Yet these desirable people appear to have had no effect whatever on their pupils, since at 18 they are as Miss Phillips describes them. What then is the value to teaching of these particular qualities which are lacking in the two-year students and present in the University student? Does it not look as though something else were necessary, which these superior people lack?

Would it not be much more scientifically correct to state, 'The average two-year student comes from a lower economic level and *therefore* has a narrower range of personal experience and has achieved a lesser degree of personal maturity, and *because* of this, judged by arbitrary standards created by people from the higher economic level she appears to have a lower intelligence quotient'? The widespread tendency to confuse the ability to memorise examination subjects with innate intelligence, about which we know very little, has dangerous social possibilities. And the unconscious hint that teachers should be attracted and selected from the higher economic level is reactionary both socially and educationally. The greater the class differences between the teacher and taught the less successful will be the education, since there is nothing real in the teacher which corresponds to the emotional and mental make-up of the taught, there is no solid bridge between them along which the knowledge and the suggestions for living can travel. And the training college problem

will not be solved in the training college; it must be solved in the secondary school, possibly even in the elementary school.

How can it be solved there within our existing economic system? There must be a drive to widen the range of the pupil's personal experience. This means some expenditure, but no one will now make the claim that the country is poor. Combined pressure from teachers and parents would bring forth the very small necessary funds. The pupils must be helped to achieve greater personal maturity. This will not be done by the so-called self-government, which in practice means delegating all the tiresome tasks previously performed by teachers to pupils. It means within certain limits giving them the opportunity to make mistakes and to right those mistakes. It means that throughout the school period there should be much more discussion by the pupils—much greater challenging of statements made either by the teacher or class-mates than there is. It means arousing and encouraging among the pupils a desire to do things, to have experience. None of this would be difficult to achieve if, for example, the class arithmetic were applied to local wage-rates, unemployment, food prices, etc., and related to possibilities of production and consumption in a community; if the class history showed the relation of the past to the present, and the possibilities for the future; if the science lessons consisted not merely of facts and experiments but also of deductions as to what the full use of science in modern life could do to make life attractive and satisfactory.

This leads on to the suggestion that studies of food supply, public services, etc., should take the place of geography, history and the other subjects. Are not such subjects as 'food supply, public services, etc., subjects with which every boy or girl should be conversant on leaving school? How can they come to civic and political conclusions, which they must do as citizens if they know nothing about these subjects? Should not this knowledge have been given before 18? If that is done, would it not be more advantageous to take the subjects of history, geography, etc., in the training college in order to deepen and extend the foundations upon which the teaching must be built? There is great value in intellectual activity which is motivated by an understanding of practical life, great value in a thorough and scholarly knowledge of a subject.

One final reflection. Education, particularly when limited to the school hours, as is generally the case, cannot give culture, which is an understanding and appreciation of the artistic, scientific and intellectual achievements of mankind. It can only, and if it does not do that it has failed, stimulate the acquisition of culture, stimulate the desire to know and to understand and to do.

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

English Section

Membership : including *The New Era* is on a sliding scale from 10/6 to £2 . 2 . 0.
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Particulars of aims and activities from THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

I should like to cross swords with Dr. Reeves on her use of the words 'general and particular' as related to education, but space only permits me a very sketchy attempt at showing how she misuses the words. (This 'particularisation' of words by educationists whereby each gives his or her particular meaning to a word or term is dangerously retrogressive. If it spreads we shall lose our common language.)

'General' education does not mean the same knowledge acquired in the same way, creating the same reactions. It means education which gives 'general' as opposed to a detailed and specialist information about certain subjects which is the essential basis both for detailed specialized study and for an understanding and appreciation of modern life. A man who roughly knows the course of history, who knows the outline of world geography, who has some knowledge of the achievements of the sciences and the arts, has had a good 'general' education. The fact that he gives his own 'particular' interpretation to this knowledge does not particularize the knowledge ; it particularizes his reaction only.

These are just a few random reflections. I hope they will stimulate others to further thought. A pooling of ideas may bring useful results if we have the courage to insist that the ideas be put into practice.

Beatrice King

[Replies invited.—ED.]

To the Editor of 'The New Era'.

MADAM,

The New Era is surely the first journal to devote a complete number to that Cinderella of our educational system—the Teacher Training College—and this at a time when, as your Student-contributor says, 'public attention is focussed elsewhere' ! But it is perhaps just because the 'elsewhere' in impinging *everywhere* upon civilian life and is criss-crossed by a growing anxiety for the welfare of the children that you have thought the moment ripe for this special issue. And for this courtesy much thanks are due from those who are concerned both with education as a whole and with the Training College in particular.

I have before me the Report of the Commission on Training Colleges, drawn up by the British Student Congress which met at Leeds last March. Some time ago I was privileged to take part in a spirited discussion on its contents by a vital group of students from various types of college. As Dr. Stead points out 'one of the most hopeful signs in discussions upon our Training Colleges lies in the fact that the criticism comes not only from without,

but from within', for the progress of reform in training has been hindered in some degree by the fact that Training College Students of the past were too ready to play the part of 'dumb, driven sheep'. Many of the charges which the Report levels against conditions in the Colleges, *e.g.* details of internal discipline, antiquated teaching methods, isolation from other student-bodies, are indeed in process of becoming a dead-letter, as the College staffs change either their views or their personnel, and as the students themselves adopt a more intelligent and adult attitude towards their own training : in the long run I believe it is true to say that, as with nations, students will get the government they deserve !

Now I hope very much that many members of the Congress will read through the current number of *The New Era* and that they will find there, not only encouragement for their aspirations, but also a restatement of the function of the Training College to which they can subscribe. To read the introductory article by Dr. Stead is to become aware at once of the relation of training to the whole of life, in which intending teachers should become 'the conscious instruments of a purpose recognized by themselves as good'.

In a rather unhappy phrase the Report of the British Students' Congress defines the function of the Training College—'to ensure that each student shall feel himself an *adequate* teacher', and the student adds the commentary, 'We want a chance to make ourselves better citizens *through* our training, so that our interests may not be bounded by the class-room.' Miss Reeves suggests a solution to the problem. While insisting that 'the vocational basis of the Training College course, if rightly conceived, is its strength rather than its weakness', her able article on Vocation shows how in the very specialization of a teacher's training may be realized an integrated life which is at once 'rich in variety and high in quality'.

The contributions of Miss Braybrooks and Miss Fletcher form a practical corollary to the more philosophic articles of the two writers who have been quoted above, for they illustrate how the technical equipment of the teacher should cover a wide area of personal contacts and cultural interests—experiences which will not only make him 'aware of the fundamental truths about children' but will help 'to liberate him as a person'.

It is well that there should be, as Miss Fletcher demands, 'a re-orientation' of the teacher's education—that we should scrap the last remnants of a narrowly academic and dogmatic 'training' : but

no education that is cultural can dispense with sound scholarship. 'Good scholars and good teachers are not mutually exclusive classes', says Professor Stanley. The specialist as well as the general practitioner is needed, and there is an absurdity in 'suspecting and therefore scrapping the subject'. The warning is a timely one! There is more than one road towards the equipping of the teacher, though all roads will have common finger-posts: and Miss Fletcher would, I think, be the first to agree that the success of the interesting scheme outlined in her article will depend largely upon the contributions made by the most highly-specialized knowledge that is available.

All the contributors to this number are in agreement upon certain fundamentals. All, in their several ways and from different angles of approach, claim for the teacher-in-training that he shall be shown the way to 'the good life': all again see him as a full-grown member of the student-world, differentiated only from other members by the specialized character of his vocation. No educationist could hold that the young person of 20, after two short years of technical training, is really equipped to pass on this knowledge of the good life to his successors. 'The Training College', says Dr. Stead, 'must demand more time for true education, which must always be a leisurely process'. The extension of the course to three years should be a minimum requirement.

The perusal of this issue of *The New Era* demonstrates very clearly that the whole fabric of our teacher-education is under healthy scrutiny from within and without, and that constructive thought and practical ability are being enlisted in its service. As one who is nearing the end of a long and varied apprenticeship in training, may I offer to you, Madam, my warm congratulations upon the able and comprehensive way in which your journal has handled so many of its present difficulties and has pointed the way to a future of richer fulfilment.

Florence Johnson
(Principal, St. Gabriel's College,
Camberwell, S.E.5.)

Extract from letter from C. W. Baty, Headmaster, The King's School, Chester.

. . . . Beyond holding that the Ministry of Information is an even greater danger than Germany, and the unpopular view that children are better shock-absorbers than most adults, I doubt if I have anything to say.

Extract from letter from Miss Marie Butts (late of the Bureau International d'Education, Geneva.)

. . . . I earnestly hope that children under 13 at least are kept free from war news, and those over 13 given the news wisely and briefly by wise teachers. But children seem to listen—in all countries—at home to just anything or everything. It is a sad pity, but there it is. . . .

Directory of Schools—Great Britain

DARTINGTON HALL TOTNES DEVON

Headmaster: W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools, and the staff therefore includes a proportion of highly qualified scholars actively engaged in research as well as in teaching. With the help of an endowment fund it is planning and erecting up-to-date buildings and equipment.

Fees: £120-£160 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

DARTINGTON HALL TOTNES DEVON

Headmaster: W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

TEACHER TRAINING DEPARTMENT

A department for the training of teachers for Nursery School, Kindergarten, and Junior School work, under the direction of Miss Margaret Isherwood, formerly lecturer at the Froebel Education Institute. Preparation for the Teachers' Certificate of the National Froebel Union. Special attention to the needs and interests of 'free lance' students, particularly to those coming from abroad or those requiring short courses of study not leading to an examination. Excellent opportunity for contact with children of all ages and classes. Facilities of the Dartington Hall Estate available for students wishing to get some acquaintance with rural life and industries.

Further information on application.

Directory of Schools—continued

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(Recognized by the Board of Education)

Founded 1889 ORIGINATED THE NEW SCHOOL MOVEMENT Reorganized 1927

A PUBLIC SCHOOL
for boys of 11 to 18, preparing
for entrance to the Universities

A JUNIOR SCHOOL
attached, for boys of 7 to 12
not preparing for 'Common
Entrance'

BASING all education on a sense of reality and on the spirit of loyal co-operation, this school claims to train boys for present-day life through keenness, health, self-discipline, and understanding, using such modern methods as are of proven value. The estate and country surroundings are ideal for the purpose, and visits are invited.

Chairman of Council: Prof. J. J. Findlay,
M.A., Ph.D.

Headmaster: Colin H. C. Sharp, M.A. (Ox.)

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS FARNHAM SURREY

Headmaster: PAUL ROBERTS, M.A.

Frensham Heights is a co-educational school containing at present 105 boarders and 45 day pupils equally divided as to sex and equally distributed in age from 6 to 18.

The school stands in a high position in 170 acres of ground and is exceptionally fortunate in its accommodation and equipment.

Fees : 144 guineas per annum inclusive

Four scholarships are offered annually

For particulars apply Headmaster

THE GARDEN SCHOOL

Wycombe Court, Lane End

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Girls' boarding school (4-18). Estate of 61 acres in Chiltern Hills. Balanced education with scope for initiative and creative self-expression. Large staff of graduates, besides specialists in elocution, art, crafts, eurhythmics and physical exercises. Open-air swimming pool.

FEES : £120-£150 per annum according to age on admission.

A Home School for little boys and girls from two to ten years.

LITTLE FELCOURT SCHOOL, EAST GRINSTEAD, N.E.

is founded on the Montessori idea of a 'Children's House'. The school aims to create the happy free atmosphere of a real home.

Particulars from the Principal.

MALTMAN'S GREEN GERRARDS CROSS BUCKS

*Boarding School for Girls from
nine to nineteen years of age*

Headmistress: MISS CHAMBERS

HURTWOOD SCHOOL

Peaslake

Nr. Guildford

Co-educational from 3 years.

Modern building equipped for children in beautiful and healthy surroundings. The school aims at a high standard of scholarship in addition to health and happiness.

It wishes to attain a constructively progressive outlook without reaction, and believes that this can be done where tolerance is based upon sound knowledge and understanding.

Full particulars from the Principal:
JANET JEWSON, M.A., N.F.U.

Directory of Schools—continued

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH

Those who would like to know about the educational way of life which is being developed by this community of some 240 boys and girls and 40 adults are invited to communicate with the Principals.

BURGESS HILL SCHOOL REDHURST, CRANLEIGH, SURREY

A Preparatory School for boys and girls between the ages of 5 and 13.

HEADMASTER : JOHN L. GRAHAM

The School moved from Hampstead at the outbreak of war, but retains the same staff and educational facilities.

Special emphasis on art, music, workshop and creative activities besides the usual academic subjects.

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Fees £82 a year subject to reduction by Bursari

All further particulars from the Headmaster

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**Flint Hall Farm, Royston,
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CO-EDUCATIONAL DAY SCHOOL. AGES 3 TO 18

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Encouragement of individual initiative in intellectual and manual activities.

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Maximum of 80 girls (half day pupils) aged 8 to 18. Small classes, large graduate staff. Education in the widest sense under unusually happy and free conditions. Exceptionally good health record. Elder girls not taking College entrance can either specialize in Drawing, Design, Languages, Music, or Handicraft, or enter Wychlea Domestic Science House. Playing fields, bathing pool.

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Mrs. ELIZABETH G. THOMPSON, Hons.
Sch. Eng. Language & Literature (Oxon.)

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Headmaster :

W. T. R. RAWSON (B.A. Hons. Camb.)

PARC WERN SCHOOL

(formerly SWANSEA) evacuated to :

**DOLAUCOTHY HALL, PUMPSAINT,
nr. LLANWRDA, CARMARTHENSHIRE**

Day and Boarding School for Boys and Girls from 3 to 12 years.

A community of children and staff engaged in every kind of play, creative activities and formal work—where parents are closely associated with the school's control and interests.

Subsidiary Courses of Training are offered to Domestic Science Students, Nursery School Workers, School Matrons, and Teachers.

The school is recognized by the Board of Education.

THE BELTANE SCHOOL

now at Shaw Hill, Melksham, Wilts. Boys and girls from five to eighteen years. Economical running to meet war-time needs.

Directory of Schools—continued

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Wennington Hall, via Lancaster

Massive building in quiet area, undisturbed by sirens. Boys and Girls; Junior and Senior depts. A school community, staffed largely by married people, incorporating domestic workers in equality and common standard of living. Hardy, practical education, aiming at both sensitiveness and toughness, providing immediate creative enjoyment and a preparation for the tasks of the post-war world. Experienced graduate teachers. Advisory council under chairmanship of Prof. John Macmurray. Fees: £90-£100 a year, with reductions in certain cases.

Headmaster : KENNETH C. BARNES, B.Sc.
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Co-educational, from 3-18 years.

The Nursery School remains at Jordans Village, but increasing numbers have enabled us to move the seniors 5 miles to beautiful Stoke Manor. 40 boarders, 40 day people. Keenly alive specialist staff. Food reform diet.

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Sound modern education for boys and girls aged 5-12 years. Inclusive boarding fee.

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NOW AND TOMORROW—III

Vivian Ogilvie

WHEN things are difficult we tend to become fetish-minded. Some stunt, especially if it runs counter to what we have been doing, will put everything right, or so we persuade ourselves.

Our present difficulties have scrawled a great query over the manner of life which we call 'democratic'. Incessant talk of its failure over against the successes of dictatorship has shaken our confidence. We cannot decently proclaim that we must abandon democracy in favour of dictatorship, but in more discreet language the idea is being canvassed. The favourite formula is that what we need is 'leadership.' It is the latest fetish. If we will only surrender the prerogatives of judgment and decision to strong leaders, all our problems will be solved and we shall discover the joy of 'true' liberty.

Leadership

It would be rash to dismiss the idea of leadership merely because people have turned to it through impatience or failure of nerve. Superstitions have often been the crude material from which science has extracted significant truth.

In any society—even in the Society of Friends—leadership is a fact in the sense that some individuals influence their fellows more strongly than others. The more highly organized a society is, the more pronounced and clearly defined leadership is apt to be. Often it is crystallized in a hierarchy of offices which lend their occupants an authority partly independent of their personal qualities. Wherever leadership is a recognized institution, its character is conditional upon the purpose, size, structure and spirit of the society.

The modern world, with its vast populations

and its manifold techniques for influencing behaviour, has expanded the potentialities of leadership enormously. Detailed decisions by the total population are impossible. It is always a few, generally the occupants of key positions, who decide. Like the uninspiring string of a kite, leadership is necessary to make modern society work. This is a fact, but not a moral principle. It is a feature of the stage our social development has reached. New patterns of social aggregation, new social techniques, may in time render it unnecessary, but at present we have to make the best of it.

This fact is in a state of tension with another fact. The most important trend of human effort discernible in history is what may be called the humanizing trend. I mean the effort which runs like a thread through the ups and downs of centuries to bring social life into harmony with the best human qualities as they have been exhibited in the lives of individuals. This trend works towards 'the creation of a universal society based upon common humanity in which freedom and equality form the basis of all relationship' (Macmurray). It has been nourished by the best elements in religion as well as by the spirit of science. To it are due all reforms which have increased the stock of 'sweetness and light' in human existence.

The principle of this trend being equality and freedom, it is always pulling against expressions of the principle of superiority and of the will to power. Inevitably, therefore, the device of leadership is in a state of tension with it. Leadership at its best—limited, revocable and purged of personal ambition—may be a valuable expedient. But its nature makes these favourable conditions difficult to maintain, and common experience shows how fraught with temptation is the power to order other men's lives.

In the light not only of history but of current affliction, it is remarkable that so many voices should be raised calling for more and stronger leadership. We have seen strong, efficient leadership at work before our eyes, and under its hand tolerance has vanished, kindness and truthfulness have been penalized, and happiness has gone out of millions of lives. Surely

it is not this side of the tug-of-war that needs reinforcement!

Nevertheless, dangerous as the device is, we have admitted that some kind of leadership is inevitable. The problem is to discover what kinds of leadership are really necessary and in what situations; then to discover how we may get them and yet keep them within recall.

To illustrate the problem, let us notice one distinction. Leadership by virtue of personal qualities and leadership by virtue of position—both as old as human society—differ in principle, although in practice they blend. The interaction of the two in specific instances ought to be illuminating. Consider, *e.g.* the position of a President of the U.S.A. before election, in the first half of his term, in the second half, and after he has ceased to be President.¹ Analysis of this kind throws up vital questions that need answering. In a given society, which are the functions and what the circumstances that call for leadership by virtue of position, and which call for leadership by virtue of personal qualities?

The more one goes into the problem, the more complicated—and important—it reveals itself to be. It is evident that different positions call for different qualities—knowledge, administrative and organizing ability, skill in handling large numbers of men. It would seem too that the same office calls for different qualities according to the situation in which the society finds itself—whether in peace or war, for instance. To a reasonable mind, therefore, it is not easy to imagine any individual possessing competence for total leadership. Competence can only be relevant to a restricted sphere. Even the ability to organize is not of universal application, as we have to learn afresh in every war by the failure of transplanted business executives and military administrators.

What is the basis of the kind of leadership represented by the contemporary dictators? The most notorious of them has the blinkered intellect of a crank. He has depended on lieutenants like Röhm, Goering, Goebbels and Schacht to organize and administer for him. Yet he is not what he is merely through

¹ See Frank Darvall, *The American Political Scene*.

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occupying an exalted position. Having attained that position, not by the exertions of his followers nor by popular election but through the intrigues of certain powerful economic groups, he proceeded to alter the nature of his office so as to make his power absolute. Then, backed by armed force, he suppressed all opposition and, to secure the future, insulated his people from outside influences and subjected them to incessant propaganda. In particular, he had the oncoming generations indoctrinated with a semi-religious faith in himself and his extraordinary theories. It was not knowledge or administrative ability that enabled him to attract and hold a large number of people. What was it?

The essential instruments of this kind of leadership (which, in only lesser degree, is that wielded by Hitler's brother dictators) seem to be outstanding psychological and political cunning, complete unscrupulousness, and a queer personal quality that evokes submission in other men. This last and very important quality is something of a mystery. Great preachers have it. Fair-ground charla-

tans have it. It can inspire and it can delude. It plays best on those whose intelligence and independence are weak. Raised to its highest degree it is psychopathic. All told, the essential qualities for this kind of total leadership are so undesirable that we should never wish to cultivate them.

Here we come to the really singular proposal that many advocates of leadership are making. Let us, they say, select at a fairly early age boys who show promise of making leaders and train them for their job. (*N.B.*—There is never any talk of female leaders—this is to be a men's paradise.) I confess this leaves me gasping. If we want to create little Nazis, well and good. Hitler has shown us how. But if we have some other idea of suitable leaders, do we know how to go about it? Do we know how to select leaders for a democracy during boyhood? And if we did, do we know how to train them for leadership? I see no reason in all our educational experience for thinking that we are in a position to do either. Specific knowledge and skill we can and do impart. Children with outstanding ability in any

direction can and do receive training which will qualify them later on for posts of responsibility. Qualities of character, on the other hand, develop at different ages in different individuals; the biographical facts regarding great leaders do not permit us to think that we could have either spotted them young or trained them.

In England the Public Schools have provided many generations of leaders, and for this reason it is sometimes claimed that they have a system of training leaders. That the character training which they give has many merits is true. But their pupils have not become leaders because of that training so much as because of the advantages which birth and wealth confer in our society. The Public Schools have strengthened the confidence bred by those advantages and shared in their prestige. The less favoured classes lack that confidence and, indeed, have been brought up traditionally to accept the leadership of their betters as natural.

In a democracy leadership cannot be based on privilege. Furthermore, its scope must be defined, its exercise checked, its tenure terminable—all by the will of the led. It is not for a leader to define or alter the terms of his mandate. Yet, so long as he does not abuse his position or seek to make himself indispensable, a leader should be given real power to act. But in a democracy something more is required. Democracy is the only form of polity which is truly educational. A democratic leader, like a good teacher, should always aim at making himself unnecessary. The perfecting of democracy depends on the development of ever greater wisdom and responsibility in the ordinary citizen. Its distant goal is less, not more, government. The string of the kite should be as light as possible.

The more human and satisfying our society becomes, the less troublesome will be the problem of leadership. Given genuine equality of opportunity for all and a sound education that includes appropriate social experience, natural selection can be trusted to throw up leaders of the types required. The organic process is for a society to produce its own leaders, not *vice versa*. Any attempt to settle beforehand the type of leadership a future

society is to have is an attempt by the dead hand of the past to rob it of its freedom. It is not for those who, when they had the chance, failed to make a better world to dictate to their successors by arranging for the selection and training of leaders. However much they would like to found a dynasty, it is not permissible.

A change of social order must come first. The plea for leadership now is, consciously or unconsciously, an attempt to avert changes that frighten those who are rooted in the old order. It is obvious that we are either to succumb to reaction or else to move forward with vigour and enterprise into a new world. The momentum of history will not allow us to hang about at the crossroads any longer. If we are to go forward we shall have to use our brains and imagination to plan. No stunt or fetish borrowed from reactionary régimes will solve the enormous problems that face us. We must stick to the faith that human personality, the common possession of us all, is the supreme treasure of this world, a faith which can only accept the device of leadership as conditional and instrumental. We must not exchange it for that interested inversion which is Hitler's doctrine of *Persönlichkeit*, a doctrine that would install leadership as an eternal principle.

There is no short cut by which we can avoid the task that lies before us. Unless we are going to allow the weight of a petrified social order to drag individual life down to its level, we must pursue to a further stage the old aim of raising social existence towards the level of excellence already attained in individual lives, the aim of basing society on equality, freedom and the fraternity of all mankind.

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Christ's Idea of Childhood

H. G. Baynes, M.B., B.C. (Cantab.) **Translator of Jung's 'Psychological Types'. Author of 'Mythology of the Soul'**

WHATEVER significance may lie in the fact that the Editor of a modern educational journal takes a public interest in the question 'What Jesus really meant by the Kingdom of Heaven', it is assuredly a problem which every reflective mind must often have pondered. For Him, this blessed state, this royal inheritance, must have been clear and self-evident, as nobly simple as a cow in a field. But He walked the earth like a flaming spear, and spiritual facts required no definition or discussion. And yet these facts, which are as clear as a lark's song to a poet, are not immediately apparent to the psychologist.

What then is the quality of the child-mind which Jesus felt to be the most significant property of the blessed state? The actual children we know have some endearing and some detestable qualities. They are, in fact, primitives living their positive and negative qualities almost uninhibited. Is this what Jesus felt to be blessed?

Positive qualities are best discerned against a dark background. The best qualities of the British people, for example, are brought into clear relief against the background of Nazi treachery and brutality. In other words, the thing that inflames our wrath, grips the mind, and becomes our major problem is often found to be the vehicle of the good. The finest qualities of our inheritance seem to emerge out of the very heart of our worst problem.

The evil thing which darkened the soul of Christ with wrath was pharisaism. In Christ's world the psychological equivalent to Hitler was undoubtedly the pharisee. He was like a dark opacity of fanatical will that interfered with the clear light of God, completely analogous to the opacity of the supercharged ego which interferes with the serene impersonality of the Self.¹

Taking, then, the pharisee as our dark

background, we immediately see, in brilliant relief, the contrasting opposite quality of translucence as the essential attribute of the blessed state. Katherine Mansfield affirmed this same central quality of the child-mind in her prayer: 'Oh, God, make me as crystal for Thy light to shine through'. Compare this spirit with 'Let your light so shine before men' or 'Neither do men light a candle and put it under a bushel', or again 'Ye are the light of the world', or 'A city that is set on a hill cannot be hid'. Do not all these sayings, including the first, come from the same source?

From the adapted adult's point of view, the child merely seems to be uninhibited, and therefore often very trying. But what Christ abominated was interference with the light of heaven and its spontaneous stream of living happenings. Perhaps it was not, therefore, merely wartime obsession which prompted my Hitler analogy. For is not Hitler's evil essentially the same as that which Jesus hated so bitterly? As Smuts warned us, the whole of civilized mankind is migrating spiritually, and the British Empire is given the task of guarding the 'Ark of the Covenant' during the migration. Those essential values which for generations have served as a link or bridge between God and man must be preserved. The continuity of life and the continuity of culture, that is our charge and care. Hitler, on the other hand, is informed with the very spirit of interference. Everything which serves as the vessel of Christian culture he spurns and violates, just as his bombs every night attempt to sever the continuity of our life-stream and its complex system of communications. Hitler is a black opacity obscuring the way beyond. So long as he is there, boasting of his godless power, no one can see things rightly. He is like a tormenting fly in the eye.

In Christ's time the pharisee came with his fanatical insistence on the law, allowing no spontaneity of praise, or worship, or even prayer. The true piety of the heart which

¹ The Self is conceived as a virtual centre existing between the conscious and unconscious and, therefore, embracing both.

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flows along with the moving stream, guarding the tender things of God, is continually interfered with by the pharisee's insistent 'ought' which stands over it with a whip (or a rubber truncheon).

Because of the natural translucence of his mind, the child sees through the shams and hypocrisies of the pharisee's world. This is beautifully illustrated in Hans Andersen's story of the child who was the only one who saw through the imposture of the swindling tailors. All those who were caught by, and served, *persona*¹ ideals had to pretend they saw the non-existent cloth of gold. Only the child was free to say 'Why is the king running around with nothing on?'

We explain this translucent condition of the child-mind in the following way. Psychic continuity with the past exists in that general psychic background, or matrix which Jung has termed the collective unconscious. The activity of this general matrix seems to be outside the containing framework of time and

space. Hence, it has the eternal, or timeless quality of primordial existence. Adaptation to the world and its complex social requirements produces an isolating threshold between this primordial psyche and consciousness. Thus a *persona* crust is formed which is liable to thicken into a worldly, materialistic, hard-boiled opacity that can completely cut one off from the primordial instinctual roots. But the child-mind is, as it were, a momentary excerpt of the timeless unconscious, and is, therefore, still identical in its mode of activity with the primordial unconscious. The spontaneous, independent activity of the unconscious seems to play through it in an effortless flow, unimpeded by worldly planning and egotism. Thus the child-mind is, in fact, continuous and, in a sense, identical with the primordial dawn of human intelligence. 'Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings' means, therefore, 'The unconscious has spoken.'

These reflections cast an unexpected light upon those shameless twins childish and childlike, words so often confused and yet, in meaning, such poles asunder. When we use the word 'childish' in relation to a would-be adult, we denote a puerile, silly state of uninhibited impulse and affect. Whereas, with 'childlike' we attempt to signify an essential quality of childhood of inestimable value. If the primordial condition of translucence is conceived as being salvaged from mere childishness and set, as a jewel of supreme spiritual worth, as the ruler of a creative adult mind, we then have the true meaning of childlike. Nothing, indeed, is so utterly irritating as childishness, and nothing so excellent in all the world as childlike faith in life. But is not this childlike faith once again the translucent expression of that faithfully gathered inheritance which the psyche bears from the ancestors to posterity? If it were ever possible to bring the heart of an eternal poem into the field of our psychological flashlight, we might say that the dissolving of the ego's opacity in that living, impersonal stream signifies the same healing attitude which Christ called the Kingdom of Heaven, and that the quality which makes this longed-for cure possible is the once-experienced and therefore always recoverable translucent attitude of the child-mind.

¹ In Jung's use of the word, *persona* denotes the outer character or mask; in other words, the whole mental system which is formed through adaptation to the world and its social requirements.

Co-operation in Infancy

Mary Maw

WHEN we speak of co-operation in infancy we may have in mind co-operation with rules operating in the environment, co-operation with mother, nurse, or teacher in an immediate situation, or co-operation of the child with his fellows, brothers and sisters, or playmates, and this last may be adult-directed or it may be free. The degree to which co-operation with adult requirements is demanded or requested, and free co-operation with his peers allowed and catered for, is of profound significance for the little child's development.

Forms of Co-operation

As development proceeds we find co-operation of three types :

- (a) *Instinctual*. The baby's urgent seeking of its mother's breast for love and nourishment. This, the simplest and purest form of co-operation, is the source and basis of all maturer forms, and, indeed, the underlying condition of human social life.
- (b) *Social*. Result of the generations' accumulated experience, the built-up habits and customs which form the stable background of everyday life, as well as the household rules of individual families and the accepted moral standards to which all the members are expected to concur.
- (c) *Voluntary*. The fruit of free and independent minds and wills working together, when the liberated man subordinates himself to the mutually agreed end, without loss to his individuality and with enormous enrichment to the whole. Exemplified in all epics of concerted effort, in whatever realm of history, this, the most highly developed form of co-operation, can be observed, along with the other forms, in groups of children under seven. These types, building cumulatively upon each other, broadly characterise the stages of development from infancy through childhood to

maturity, but actions and attitudes characteristic of each type are present at all stages.

An American psychologist, Lois Barclay Murphy, in a fine study of sympathy in children, entitled *Social Behaviour and Child Personality*, finds that sympathy has its part to play both in emotional growth and in learning, and this seems true of all aspects of co-operation. She finds, too, in a detailed comparison of the free play of several different groups of nursery school children, 'a striking prevalence of both aggressive and protective patterns in all the groups'—what she describes as the 'protection-aggressive swing . . . in social behaviour patterns,' and from her observations she deduces that aggression and hostility have their part in co-operation. Thus we get the reverse of the picture, the negative aspect of the development of co-operation ; so often denied its place by educators, and yet so impossible to avoid if education is based on reality.

What we Expect

Bearing the foregoing in mind, let us examine ourselves as to what we expect of the child emerging from babyhood, his eyes filled with an eager wonder and his body with urgent restlessness, as he discerns the rapidly developing powers of muscles and speech organs. Even in these days when a store of psychological knowledge is open to us, when the penetrating light of psycho-analysis illumines the older studies, and the splendid team-work of much recent American research makes possible more complete statistical evidence and comparison than hitherto ; even now we hesitate to open our eyes to the realities of social development in the nursery years. The degree of social co-operation we commonly demand in our homes is that of the adult world ; it is indeed a world made for grown-ups into which the eager adventurer advances. Above all we expect him to adapt his emotions to a stage of development that he has not yet reached. Forgetting that emotional control is a maturing

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function, when we ask a three-year-old child to take his turn with a coveted toy, to share his blocks with another, we are blind to the significance of our request. To give up even for a brief moment a cherished tricycle is more than many a three-year-old can bear; to him it is the loss of all he holds dear, maybe the corner-stone of his security, and it needs all the understanding and loving help of a trusted adult to bring him through the difficult situation. Let us, who too easily forget our own childhood battleground of loves, hates, and desires, be not overhasty to dub him selfish and unsocial. Alive to the fact of enlightened parents, nursery schools, and progressive education, I would plead for even greater honesty of purpose. Let us not demand without thought a co-operation, having as its end the instilling of habits useful and necessary in the adult community, and therefore convenient if acquired early by our children. Dewey, in *Education and Democracy*, emphasises the importance of 'the present' at every stage—not merely as a 'preparatory probation', but *in its own right*, and reminds us that there is in every child 'a

force positively present . . . the ability to develop.' This suggests that complete socialization must not be attempted too early; that playing at little men and women can be overdone, as, for example, in the elaborate ritual of some nursery school dinner hours; the pressure towards consistent helpfulness at all times, and, for older children, too great a responsibility for making rules of conduct for the community; and all round tendency to make your children 'think for the group' and subordinate personal impulses to an adult conception of 'the common good'. We still incline to view social conduct in our children from the moral rather than the developmental angle; moreover, in so doing, we run grave risk of stultifying mature thought by instilling a habit of co-operation which is in its essence a dependent attitude. In many lives true co-operation never flowers because it has always been enforced.

A Developmental View of Social Conduct

Let us look at social conduct from the developmental angle, and in so doing note the interrelation of co-operation and independence. In observing groups of nursery school children for the earliest social contacts we are bound to note the presence of the adult as the chief *condition* for such contacts. The play of two-year-olds is largely a discovery of their own bodily powers, and therefore very individual; deep unconscious motives connected with the relation to their parents, brothers, and sisters are also present. The immediate cause of the first social awareness is often the overlapping of similar phantasies, when the play of one child fits into and emphasises the phantasy of another. Early social contact is an experiment, an exploration of the environment, fraught with suspicion and anxiety. This fact becomes clearer if we realize that co-operation has its negative as well as its positive faces; the dawn of co-operation with other children and with a wider world means inevitably the loosening of that close and complete co-operation of the baby with his mother, and, consequently, a measure of pain and anxiety. This, moreover, explains why so often the first contacts with another child take the form of tentative poking, or even pushing and hitting.

The open expression of anxiety is itself a release of tension, and often a prelude to more friendly contact. Observation shows that the most aggressive children are also, in the main, the most friendly.

As the child grows accustomed to the group his social play becomes infinitely richer and more varied. Anything that we can provide in the way of co-operative work and games pales into insignificance beside the rich and vivid self-initiated play of a group of children between three and five years old. Crude and primitive it may be, but as Murphy says: 'The play patterns of the children are a mirror of the culture that surrounds them, and this culture provides the raw material for their activity and phantasy.' She finds 'eating, playing mother and baby, doctoring the babies, shooting and killing,' together with 'transportation activities' the commonest forms of play, and the writer's observations confirm this, plus, in a group of poor children, 'workmen' play.

Social Contacts in the Nursery School

Characteristic of social play at this stage are : the fact of small groups ; of real and abiding friendships, the same groups persisting day after day for many months ; of inner circles, with an outer and fluctuating fringe, consisting sometimes of children anxious to be admitted, and sometimes of children almost unconscious that they are being included, but 'used' from time to time as the play requires ; of leadership and willing co-operation, but aggression against an unwanted child or rival groups, and sometimes to a small extent against the adults. The play of maternal feelings strongly determines social contacts between younger and older children, satisfying the need for power as well as revealing genuine love and care for the younger ones. Such remarks as Valerie's (two years eight months) of a younger child : 'I held her hand ; she liked me to hold her hand,' and Roland's (four years four months) to a two-year-old, with genuine interest : 'What are you doing, darling?' being commonly heard in the nursery school. Three boys of about three and a half years played day after day throughout a whole term at 'workmen', the activity mostly taking place on and under a row of tables. Large bricks, chairs, and odd

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articles were utilized as the workmen's materials, and intense activity went on, moving objects, climbing, jumping up and down, piling up bricks, accompanied by a continuous flow of conversation. The co-operation was perfect and harmonious, though occasionally directed against intruders; moreover, it was entirely proof against temporary interruptions. Throughout, the children addressed each other as 'Bill', the Cockney labourer's almost generic term for his mate, emphasizing their complete identification with their phantasy. The same degree of co-operation was observed in the mother and house play of three or four girls aged four to five. In a group of children of a higher economic level a very striking example of co-operative play occurred when, for one and a half hours, two children, a boy and girl, formed the centre of a group who persevered in wheeling a large barrow up and down narrow planks, the wheel frequently slipping off and having to be replaced. The culmination was a big co-operative effort (including an adult who was sent to fetch a piece of string) to guide the barrow up the chute. The final haul up involved all the children present, either as active collaborators or cheering onlookers. Here we have examples of the highest form of co-operation; each individual contributing freely towards the common end. The co-operation of scientist and research workers has its counterpart in such childish play, but only when we are content not to intrude; not indeed displaying indifference, but by our steady sympathy providing that background of security against which the children can make unafraid contact with each other in the solving of a common problem.

The Teacher's Part

If what I have said seems to deprecate interference in the spontaneous play of small groups, and a hesitation in forming larger teacher-directed groups, let me examine the teacher's function as I see it. Having honestly admitted the artificiality of larger groups, we may then proceed to review their usefulness. Where large numbers of little children have to be in close quarters the teacher-directed activity is a necessary stabilising factor. Music, rhythmic movement and stories can produce a

unity of shared enjoyment as truly co-operative in its way as the active working on a problem.

Children who have expended much energy in free play will respond gladly to the teacher's suggestion that it is her turn now, and will relax in the security of her controlling hand. The teacher has to exercise her judgment according to conditions; the amount of adult-controlled co-operative work depending upon the composition of the group, its size, age range, age distribution, and the physical environment and available space. Her aim should always be to foster spontaneous co-operation while guarding individual rights. The writer recalls a group for singing games, the larger number of children eager and active participators, with a fringe of more highly individualistic and possibly brighter spirits upon whom a little constraint has been exercised to take part. At the least opportunity they would crawl energetically away to more congenial activities under a table; a year later the same boys would be found hiding in the garden when the call came for organized group activities. It is the writer's growing conviction, result of not a little tentative experiment with methods, attitudes, and aims, that we may rely in the main upon the children themselves to show us their co-operative needs. Murphy tells us that 'individual children have different patterns of giving and receiving responses,' and one is more and more convinced of a rhythm of dependence and independence, co-operation and withdrawal in the make-up of each child; hard, may be, to fit into the life of the group, but infinitely worth respect. The attempt will bring problems: the problem of the solitary child, whose aloofness must be respected even while social activity is presented as desirable; the problem of the child who can never co-operate, and for whom skilled treatment may be necessary (and here I would add a plea for an earlier recourse to the Child Guidance Clinic than is sometimes thought necessary); the problem of the dominating child who cannot give and take; a child such as this has been observed, the strength of whose phantasy was such that by every artifice at her disposal she kept lively normal children of her own age tucked up in cramped positions in large dolls' beds for an hour on end while she played the

overbearing mother. Such children can be distinguished from those others, the natural leaders, whose play is an inspiration to their followers, and whose tact and good judgment are proof of well-adjusted emotions.

As I see it, the teacher's first function is to provide an environment in which social contacts may develop, and of paramount importance is the provision of suitable play material. Miss May has shown in a previous issue of the *New Era* that the choice of play material at each age plays its part in social development. The two-year-olds make contact when similar phantasies lead them to play harmoniously with the same piece of apparatus, usually a piece involving no particular problem. The four- and five-year-olds begin 'to see the value of co-operative investigation of problems,' and to help them to this, says Miss May, is to have given them 'the best preparation for their later development.' Finally, in reviewing the teacher's part, I quote from Murphy: 'Anyone

who has observed a number of groups of children is aware of the way in which a blithe and affectionate adult may unconsciously release warm friendliness in a group of children, and how even unconscious adult tensions may create insecurity, and along with it antagonistic or competitive behaviour.'

We can and should expect from our children some degree of conformity with accepted standards, some consideration for others, if we are ready to give them the same. Born of mutual love and sympathy, the generous co-operative spirit of the happy home cannot be taught explicitly, but it is the great bulwark of security in the background of childhood, the bedrock of confidence in which independence and creativeness can root and flower. From it springs the free co-operation of the mature mind, its roots in the instinctual basis, nourished and watered by the individual's own experience, enriched by that of his fellows and the cumulative stores of the race.

A Nursery School and the War

Nancy Quayle

Romany Nursery School

LOOKING back over the past year we feel that in this nursery school evacuation has been not only an escape from peril, but an escape into an experience that will enrich the whole lives of these children. Many people have called them the happiest group of children they have ever seen.

In those first September days, when all our forty-seven were homesick, the older ones asked why we had come away. We told them the King said it would help him to do a job if they would leave their homes for a bit. We talked constantly of the day when the King would send a bus to fetch us home, but the children settled into country life very quickly. One day we heard two three-year-olds talking on a walk. 'Want to go home.' 'What, home to your Mum?' 'No! home to me tea.'

Black-out was a difficulty. We said it was a secret that we were sleeping in the house and we must not show a light in case people guessed we were there. One of the oldest, nearly five,

said 'Do you mean the Germans would drop bombs on us?'

Presents from home are nearly always war toys—soldiers, guns, tanks, etc.—but the imaginative play has shown hardly any influence of the war. I only realized this when I went home on a visit and noticed that the village children of the same age played nothing but war games. Our children left London a week before war broke out, and saw no other children for nearly ten months while we were living in the heart of Kent. Their dramatic play is all of home or farmyard life.

So far we have been untouched by real tragedy; none of our group has been made homeless or orphaned, and we have all along done all we could to keep the memories of their homes alive. After the first few weeks we found that inevitably some dormitories involved harder work than others, and it was suggested that the staff moved round, having the more exacting work in turn. However, we never tried this plan, as the children, when

they heard of it, said, 'But Miss A *can't* come into our room. We are Miss B's people.' It meant a very great deal to them to have one teacher who was specially their own; someone who was unfailingly there in any important moment from the loss of a button to birthday celebrations; someone who was in some measure a substitute for Mother.

At bedtime, when they are bathed and tucked up, after their story and thanksgiving, we kiss each child 'Good-night' and talk a little about their homes and families so that they cannot forget. Their homes are still very real to them. After six months Tommy, who was just two when we came away, suddenly said, at six one morning, 'My Mum give me pickles with my dinner.' Michael's shoes had to be mended eight months after we had left London, and the cobbler used something with a strong, fishy smell. I went into the dormitory and found Michael sitting with his feet straight out in front of him, while the others solemnly filed past and sniffed his soles. One of them turned a radiant face to me and said, 'They smell of home. *Just* like fish and chips.'

Last Christmas Eve the parents came in a char-a-banc, and with their children explored the farm and gardens and frosty woods. On Christmas morning each child found his bulging sock with a penny in the toe, and a biscuit and an apple. They all wore their favourite clothes. One who could not decide if he liked his blue suit better than his green, wore both, and occasionally lifted up the top jersey to be sure the other was still underneath. Another boy wore three hats, precariously kept in place with a striped belt. They had chicken for dinner, and for once saw it carved up before it was served, so that they could realize it was something 'special'. After their afternoon rest they gathered round the huge Elizabethan fireplace and heard the Christmas story by firelight, and sang carols till it was time for tea and the tree and presents. We carried on our custom of giving each child his own little iced Christmas cake decorated with a tiny candle in a sugar holder, and towards the end of tea we turned out the lights while each child lit up his own cake, and tea was finished in the soft glow of forty little candles. Perhaps it would be better to end there, but

late that night Renée woke and said 'There, now! We never had a special breakfast!'

From the beginning aeroplanes have been called 'bombers', but the children showed no fear when aircraft flew low over us. We fostered a love of thunderstorms. After the lightning they waited for the crash and hailed it with delight, and in consequence the few explosions they have heard have not frightened them at all. Tony said 'I'll ask my airman Daddy how Father God makes thunder and lightning. He's up in the sky a lot in his aeroplane so he's sure to know.'

We have been exceptionally lucky. Except for a brief interlude between billets we have been in lovely surroundings with people who have been very kind to us all. Our Kentish home was beautiful in the spring, and most of the children had never seen blossom before. When we turned a corner in the woodland and saw cherry trees in bloom their chatter was suddenly hushed, and then they ran forward and stood staring, till one said 'Coo! it's fairies.' This was a strange remark for a child of the London streets who had, as far as we know, heard no talk of fairies for nearly a year. The nursery school child is so full of wonder at all he sees that we leave tales of fairies and magic till later.

It means a lot when a four-year-old we had thought dull suddenly says: 'Oh, *look* at the light on the water, and don't the trees change! They are lovely now they are golden.' Throughout these difficult months we have tried not to damp their enthusiasm, though it is not easy for an adult, crawling reluctantly from bed at half past six, to respond to 'Isn't it kind of Father God to leave a few stars still in the sky!'

All the children now take a keen interest in the months and seasons. We hear them talking among themselves—'It's winter when the trees haven't any leaves, and then it's Christmas; and then it's spring when the daffodils come and then it's Easter; and cuckoos come in summertime, and it's autumn when the trees are yellow and we sweep up leaves.'

We noticed it was the ones we had thought particularly 'tough' who seemed the most moved by beauty. Brian woke at midnight and called to the teacher he loved best, saying with shining eyes, 'That little tree! It's . . . it's

magic !' Against the dark background of the war these little Londoners are confirming something of what G. K. Chesterton meant when he said :

'Neath no world terror's wing
Apples forget to grow on apple trees.'

When it became obvious that we should have to leave our first home we wondered if the change would bring insecurity again. We began saying casually that perhaps the King would have another good idea and send us to another country place before we went home. They couldn't believe it when the 'bus turned through the iron gates of the residential school on the outskirts of London where we lived for three weeks till a new billet was found. They shouted 'Driver, don't stop here. *This* isn't our new country.' We told them it was a sort of station where we were waiting to be fetched and their gloomy comment was 'There aren't any trains. It must be a police station.' The first night two of the youngest were heard discussing the situation in their squeaky little voices. 'What was the name of that chap what said this was our new country?' 'The Ting, Tommy, the Ting.' 'Huh !'

After three hot weeks during which the children drooped and grew pale, and many were taken back to their nearby homes, we again packed up and came to our beautiful home in Gloucestershire. When the 'bus drew up outside the friendly grey stone house the children hailed it without doubt—'*This* is our new country'.

When we began to hear sirens we called them 'the King's hooter', and it became an established fact that when the King's hooter goes we have a treat. We gather them into one downstairs room with protected windows and give them each a piece of barley sugar, then carry on with songs and games and stories till the 'All Clear'. At night we shutter the windows and let them sleep, as no raider comes very near our home hidden in the beechwoods.

Five weeks ago our biggest children were taken from us and put into billets, and thirteen new children from various parts of London were sent. They were very pale, and when aircraft flew over they screamed about bombs

and gas-masks and air raid shelters. For days their playtime was spent building air raid shelters of tables and chairs and rugs and crouching in them. The older ones woke in the night shrieking 'Don't take me down the cellar', and 'Hitler's coming to drop bombs on us.'

One four-year-old cried continually with a mysterious 'earache' for which the doctor could find no cause. After a fortnight, while she was being bathed, we coaxed her to talk about her home and she said 'My Mummy doesn't know where I am. She took me to a nursery school in London and a strange lady brought me here in a car. My Mummy doesn't know where to look for me.' As we could not convince her we wrote on a picture postcard 'Love and kisses to Marigold from Mummy,' and stamped it and caught the postman outside the gate next morning and he gave it out with the other letters. Marigold cried 'Then my Mummy *does* know where I am,' and the earache was cured. Our own group had been given by their mothers into the care of their teachers, friends they loved and trusted. Their parents had waved good-bye and had written to them and visited them. We had not realized the new group had been fetched by strangers from the place in which they had last seen their parents.

For health reasons the new ones were kept more or less isolated for three weeks, and very soon their fears and war talk ceased in these peaceful surroundings. Now, after only five weeks, it is getting difficult for visitors to pick the new ones out of the main group.

Sometimes we are asked if it is wise 'to let these children live in a fool's paradise.' We believe that the longer they can live in the true world of friendship and birds and animals and flowers, the greater will be their security and their strength to meet this fools' nightmare if they must. Woven into the fabric of their lives these children are gaining the knowledge which can be learned so inadequately from books : seed time and harvest do not fail ; the berries and fruits of the hedges ripen in due season and a certain order and so that the wild birds have food as they need it. They are learning that life itself is good throughout the hideous mistakes we make with it.

Aloofness in Adolescence

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Editor of 'Home and School'**

SOME time ago, as the result of a careful research, it was concluded that one of the most satisfactory ways of helping young children to surmount their feelings of inferiority and self-pity was to encourage them to develop skills—proficiency in some or other specified activity. This conclusion may have amused laymen to whom it seemed an obvious solution, but it was, in fact, a highly valuable research and an important conclusion for these days, when the commonsense solution might have been questioned as being too remote to affect the unconscious life.

It is quoted here as an aid to distinguishing roughly between two kinds of aloof adolescents. It seems possible for children to reach puberty more or less normal and then suddenly to withdraw from their contemporaries because they become class-conscious, parent-conscious, speech-conscious, and the like ; or because they have no crude terms, or do not know the facts of life (including those of sex, but not necessarily entirely comprising them) ; or have not got the same possessions as the majority of those with whom they are called upon to mix ; or cannot do a certain number of things (often 'parlour tricks'), merely because they have lacked opportunities. These are, naturally, shy about revealing publicly what seems to them in their ignorance an enormous gap. They can nearly always be helped, however, by what may be called private coaching.

But there are others, probably quite a large number, whose feeling that they are not quite adequate in one or more of these respects is obviously not true, or, if true, is clearly not the whole story. Their aloofness suggests fear of failing, of not always being perfect. It is connected with much earlier feelings of a love-order that were so painful, or painful so early in life, that they were unconsciously removed. When these feelings hold the adolescent in their grip the more conscious sense of inadequacy cannot be relieved by development of skills and straightforward attempts on the part of friends to modify the sufferers' sense of values.

And in so far as there is no clear line of demarcation between these groups it looks as though the prime difficulty for anybody who would help the aloof adolescent is that of knowing when *not* to encourage. For that is unquestionably the wrong way to approach the second class we have distinguished above so long as they remain in that class. Encouragement by a contemporary or an adult who is prepared to give time to lessening a gap privately ready for a public appearance will always be acceptable to the first group ; but it only intensifies, for members of the second, the conflict between 'I want' and 'I fear' which has too long a history to come to surface resolution at another's bidding. This knowledge of when not to encourage must, in the end, be intuitive, if for no other reason than that too calculated an approach to such an aloof person must defeat its intention. The aloof adolescent of this second group needs to feel less guilty right inside about his years of rejection. Words can only help him to achieve that release if they are casual, indirect, and accompanied by actions based upon a deep appreciation and acquaintance with the perverse swinging to and fro of feeling that results in his always going *that* way when you (the would-be helper) go *this*—and *vice versa*.

The only thing which most adolescents share in common is aloofness to their parents. Parents are the link between the two classes of aloof adolescents. They cannot help belonging partly to the past and must expect to be the last people to receive the full confidence of their children once the pre-adolescent spontaneity is gone. However wisely they have behaved, they are bound to have become involved, in their children's minds, with the notion of 'ought'. The reason why either class of aloof adolescent finds it hard to say 'I can't do this like the others', or 'I haven't got what the others have got', or 'I don't know that', is that they are so sure that they 'ought' to do and know and have so much if they are to mix and be acceptable. All adolescents carry some sort

of authority complex—that is proof of unconscious feelings about authority—over to their group, and are thereby, in varying degrees, confused.

In fact, it is surely fairly safe to assume that no adolescent is, so to speak, determined *never* to participate, but that all aloofness is an attempt to gain time. And, if that is so, then the second, or more neurotic, group of aloof adolescents is made up of those whose life to date has been one long cry of 'give me time.' While the others are able to take advantage of the time when it is given in the form of 'private coaching,' these have reached a state of perpetual verging. Their fear of the moment of contact dominates their whole lonely existence to an extent that renders them blind to what is happening and to what they are missing. How far dare we assume that they were always being rushed when they were little—rushed in those days when their time should have seemed very much their own in order that they might eventually come to realize that in reality time waits for no man, not even Daddy or Mummy. They were hurried into premature shapes and forms. Now they fear all those moments of entry and exit which are challenges to accept limits in the name of creativity. Whereas the more normal but aloof adolescent is in need of information in the ordinary sense of that word and accepts it; these others have never had their external form of living properly informed by their spirit of spontaneity. They need to be helped not to worry about the group and its information, while they recapture the joy of 'their own time'. The writer runs a community of which nobody is expected to be a loyal understanding member, and he has had the joy, in consequence, of continually watching a larger proportion of people co-operating without stimulants at any given time than in any community he has known where 'community spirit' has been preached in season and out of season as an ideal to be achieved from the moment of entry by all and sundry, regardless of their capacity or their prior needs.

Where such preaching goes on a fairly high proportion of boys will tend to lay the stress upon mannishness rather than upon manliness which, attained, is rarely spoken about. We must remain alive to the fact that a certain

number of adolescents are aloof because they have already, through development, and unconsciously, discriminated between the real and the spurious! Not that we need often worry about them, for they are not really bad mixers, even when they may appear so for a while owing to their adolescent inability to suffer fools gladly.

It seems worth while at this point to remind ourselves that many good mixers are really aloof in the deepest sense, being under compulsion to mix all their waking hours. These need the same sympathetic understanding as those in our second group. For we should probably all agree that they miss all that is missed by those whose manifest aloofness matters only in so far as it tells us of the same deep-seated confusion. However certain we may be that there are those for whom, in later life, mixing is not necessary; however certain we may be of something else that in the long run transcends social unity (while not, of course, excluding it) we should surely all agree that this does not apply to the adolescent. It is important to establish this, because they will not infrequently deny that they are missing anything, and then we have to trust our own judgment in making efforts to thaw them by gradually reducing, not their outer, but their inner resistance.

It is not difficult to understand why a nice-looking girl of seventeen is aloof when we learn that she has a brother two years older than herself who was always impatient with her when she was a young child and would never play with her. Imagine her toddling along behind him only to be rebuffed again and again until at last she gives it up and falls an easy victim to an over-particular mother and substitutes scrupulosity for love and life. Now she wastes the whole of the week looking forward—or is it backward?—to persuading her Sunday School class of little children to be good little girls like herself. The girls at her secondary school say that she is conceited.

Only sons who have a number of sisters and only daughters with a number of brothers frequently become aloof. The only boy with three sisters only too easily catches the feminine 'tone' and is also certain to be teased a lot, especially if the sisters (or even one of them) are

older and have unwittingly conspired to over-mother him. He will, quite likely, talk too he-mannishly to mix with the normally maturing boys around him, and will certainly not be a true easy mixer with the opposite sex.

When small children are over-possessed by their mothers they frequently try to achieve importance by emulating their elders. This happens most frequently, perhaps, when the parents are intellectual and when the growing child hears and over-hears a lot of intellectual conversation. Such a child may be found, in later years retiring with morbid regularity into his room to 'write'. He is really taking to the bolster to avoid life outside the cradle. His writing is unlikely to reach beyond a certain quality and will be largely repetitive and 'clever', witty rather than humorous for want of real experience—he is prone to achieving, as he vainly imagines, a fine detachment from those he likes to call his sweaty neighbours.

Sometimes parents arm their children deliberately with weapons with which those children subsequently destroy themselves. It cannot be good for young children to be too greatly encouraged into premature interest in out-of-the-way subjects, or even to be given too liberal a dose of artistic or musical appreciation. Good additions may be poor substitutes. It is interesting to note the different ways in which a child may react to parents' refusals when he is young to let him play with the village children. One boy of seventeen described to the writer how he had tried so many times to play with these and been stopped that finally he had 'trained himself' to dislike them: and so to dislike all boys. Two others who had met with the same consistent refusal both developed skill in their respective workshops, and, when the writer came to know them, were extremely clever with their hands but never mixed in any sort of joyous way with those around them. Both were hysterical perfectionists and both indulged in such pastimes as throwing stones—for fear of 'dropping bricks'. The modern world with its wireless and motor cars provides such people with easy get-aways. The reader will not be surprised to learn that neither of these two boys could see a piece of work through to a successful finish if it were called for as a need rather than as an escape from feeling or

an enlargement of their (emotionally three year old) selves.

These aloof adolescents push away from the group because they need it so much, as much as a child needs its mother and later its toys—as an extension of themselves. They want too much from the group not to be afraid of it and not to find that it is harsh and unfeeling in its incapacity to give them what they want when they want it. Is it surprising that they behave awkwardly within the group, sometimes by being unhealthily generous towards its other members? They try to buy what they should know by now cannot be bought. It is time's revenge upon those who, to avoid the pain of being embarrassed in difficult circumstances, have over-prolonged a one-time normal emphasis upon 'having' and 'doing', that they ultimately feel that they are wanted only for what they have and can do and so are in despair. They cannot be helped by those who push or 'encourage' them towards their enemies, the group, because so soon as they come against it they become unconsciously identified with it or own it for safety, and so lose personal relations with it and for lack of play become depressed. Nevertheless release can come only if somebody will acknowledge to himself and accept in boredom their tendency to become identified with and possess everything and everybody they touch and will thus help them to move little by little towards the joy of free relationship with that one person. Relationship to a group may then follow, for the aloof adolescent will have begun to move from worship of quantity to appreciation of quality and may cease to feel that being one of six is equivalent to being one-sixth. Only we must be prepared for his enjoyment in a group to take a very childish character at the beginning and we must try to safeguard him from the laughter that may greet his (as it were) over-boisterous announcement that he is beginning to grow up at last.

All adolescents are a little love-hungry. They all have their moments when they want something a little more than is legitimate, just that amount more that will make them unable to ask for it or accept it if it is offered them. They will then fall back temporarily to quantitative living and the group will become

nothing but Authority to them, something waiting to rob them, while, at the same time, they will guiltily sense a dim desire in themselves to rob the group.

This quantitative attitude is ultimately traceable to the over-valuing of the body as an end and is the direct result of its having been undervalued at any earlier period by somebody else. The embrace and the undue restrictions have become an embarrassment and the body has ceased to be valued as a tool or organ of the highest order. And where this has happened there is likely to be subsequently a similar undervaluing of the mind as a tool and undue safeguarding of it as an end. And then comes the fear of ever failing and of being robbed of physical and mental assets that have almost come to be the very self. 'Be a he-man', 'be as beautiful and gracious as a queen', 'have a high I.Q.' the group seems to say and so the athlete becomes scared of the scholar, the scholar becomes scared of the athlete, and both

become scared of the call to play. The more intuitive have longed in vain for credit for being, by nature, quick to the point when young. And now they hate the credit they do get because they feel guilty at having for years shirked the hard work of finding reasons for the faith that is in them. So they stand aloof in an attitude of self-pity.

Every aloof adolescent has to learn the meaning of 'the free gift.' The group can give the child back to himself if he can first lose himself, and surrender the seeming power that is not creative for the love that alone is power. He can only surrender if he is given time and the private coaching of a disinterested friend. If he is emotionally arrested and credit-seeking he must first be relieved of the demands of the group and be brought up against his loneliness by somebody who is skilled at dealing with unconsciously erected barriers of long standing. After which he too will accept private coaching in the qualitative joy of give and take.

Letter to the Editor

To the Editor of the 'New Era'.

DEAR MADAM,

I would like to make some reply to the letters of Mrs. Beatrice King and Miss Johnson, whose comments have a direct bearing on the theme of my article—*The Social Basis of the Curriculum*. Mrs. King asks: 'Are not such subjects as "food supply, public services, etc." subjects with which every boy or girl should be conversant on leaving school? How can they come to civic and political conclusions, which they must do as citizens, if they know nothing about these subjects? . . . Would it not be more advantageous to take the subjects of history, geography, etc., in the training college in order to deepen and extend the foundations upon which the teaching must be built?'

Such questions clearly indicate that the implications of my theme have not been fully grasped, and I would therefore like to expand a little on the nature of the challenge any thesis necessarily makes to the traditional subject curriculum, in particular where the subjects concern man in his relations to the world. I do wish to maintain that this traditional subject analysis and the kind of specialist approach that is implied in it, do not either meet the needs of the child or student to-day, or give a sound approach to the understanding of society. It is my thesis that ideas only become a valuable part of the content if an individual's knowledge when they are developed through experience and can become the dynamic to action. It is in the integration of understanding, feeling and will as a

developing process that the education of the human mind consists—and I would like to emphasise that this educational process cannot be adequately fulfilled by the accepted analysis of subject matter, though it might be fulfilled in spite of it.

As the result of a broad generalisation from experience, I dare to suggest that the processes of primary, secondary and college education have assumed capacities for abstraction in the minds of the young far beyond the stage of maturity they have reached, and the kinds of experiences in life that they have had the opportunity to assimilate. We have therefore produced a large number of people whose mental activities are divorced from the society they live in and from purposive action in relation to it. They find great satisfaction in the play of ideas but do not integrate thought, feeling and action. These people are the most nearly prey to the semi-intellectual 'isms that are so prevalent to-day, in part help to create them.

It is not the educational agreement alone that demands the re-orientation of the curriculum, but the urgent needs of the rapidly changing society in which we live. It is vitally necessary that we help the young to face and grasp the particular issues of society to-day. Apart from every other argument we cannot afford the time during the next ten years to deal with material that does not directly help in social awareness and motivation. (This does not by any means exclude the creative activities of the human spirit—music, drama, art, poetry, etc.) It is in every village and town throughout the country

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

Education will be a vital instrument in restoring freedom and civilization. We intend to play our part in creating an education equal to this task. The N.E.F. is now out of action in most European countries. Britain almost alone links Europe with the Fellowship's large membership in other continents. The English Section invites you to join in its work of preparing for the future.

Particulars of membership and aims from THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

that we must help young people to be aware of their heritage in the changing world and to be capable of taking initiative in it. If we set out to do it we certainly could develop initiative and social awareness in the young of the next generation. The true teacher does possess this incalculable faith in the possibilities of the human spirit. The true teacher knows that schooling has meant far too much formalised learning and the study of abstractions far beyond the degree of maturity reached by the young growing creature. So we have put stumbling blocks in their paths of development, and in the progress of society.

It was the thesis of my article that what we need is the approach to knowledge through the particularity of experience; that we should not approach the study of society through abstractions of subjects already made, but through the study of particular problems within the experience of the individual. This does in fact mean that the study of bread supply is not approached through a study of the wheat-growing districts of England and Canada but through the economics and social experiences of the bakers-roundsman, the salesman in the shop, the workers in the modern electrically-run bakery, the small independent baker struggling to maintain himself against the competition of mass supply, of the work and structure of a modern flour mill, of the work of unloading flour from the docks, of the work and transport of a particular ship bearing flour from Canada or Russia, of the problems of agriculture and labour implied in the study of a particular wheat-growing farm in England; from these experiences we develop to an understanding particularised if possible in the locality, of the evolution of farming, bakery, milling and marketing.

It may be clear from this that it is in the rich understanding of the particular that the universal is comprehended; and there is nothing novel in this in educational principle—but if we carry this principle out it does mean a thorough re-shaping of the curriculum. The discussion of this kind of approach to the world we live in, through particular experiences, problems and topics, immediately gives rise to the criticism of something facile, superficial and even materialistic. This is far from the truth. It will surely be clear that if we are to help the young to understand society through the solving of particular problems and the study of particular topics they will need very careful guidance from people of mature and clear minds and deep social motivations. It will be seen that children and students can fulfil their curiosity as it normally develops within their experience and become progressively adjusted to

and motivated towards the world they live in. In a certain senior school boys' class one boy's father was a small independent baker. He wrote a full account of his daily life and work, and his son read this to his fellows. Most of the boys' mothers bought bread from the 'Co-op'. In their fine modern baking factory near the school the boys followed the modern electrical processes of bread-making. So it was possible for those boys to *apprehend* through their study of particulars one of the major economic changes of the society of our time. Surely this is the kind of study by which the human mind is enlightened. So, too, particular events in society can be rich with meaning and enlightenment for an understanding of society. It is not the quantity of assimilable material that matters—it is the quality of enlightenment that comes from it.

This being so, the development of an enlightened understanding and social conscience is a continuous process of education. It is not a question, as Mrs. King suggests, of being 'conversant with certain subjects in School', in *order* to come to civic and political conclusions, and *then* to take a deep study of history, and geography at college. It is just the kind of idea which is the bane of education. We do not want our youngsters to leave school at 15, 16, 17, 18 with civic political conclusions, but to leave with some awareness of the world and its problems and some growing dynamic purposes in regard to them. Sufficient unto the age and maturity of the child is the kind of problem he can solve, and the kind of awareness and understanding he can possess.

It will be clear to Miss Johnson that I have in mind the growth of another kind of specialist from the geographer, historian, economist, sociologist, social psychologist and anthropologist, and that is a specialist that will perhaps integrate all their studies and be a specialist in society! The need for this kind of integrated study (this time of a mature adult) is implied in every page of that remarkable book of Karl Mannheim: *Man and Society*. It is part of his thesis that the present specialist analysis does not fulfil the need of the real study of society to-day, and therefore cannot give a sound basis for the planning that the present crises urgently demand. I commend this book to all who are facing the problems of society and education.

Catherine Fletcher (*The Training College, Bingley*)

Note

We have been asked to point out that 'Curry's book on Federal Union' referred to in the Adolescent's article last month is *The Case for Federal Union*, by W. V. Curry (Penguin Special, S.46).

N.E.F. CONFERENCE

A small Conference on 'Education To-day and To-morrow' is being planned for January 3—5 at Oxford. It is designed to be a discussion conference, with a few speakers (including, we hope, Kenneth Ingram and Miss Ruth Thomas) to set the pace. We want to take stock of what the war has taught us about education and its rôle in creating a better world.

Details, which will be sent to all members, may be obtained from
THE N.E.F., 29 TAVISTOCK SQUARE, LONDON, W.C.1.

Book Reviews

The Child's Discovery of Death, by Sylvia Anthony. (Published by Kegan Paul, International Library of Psychology.)

A mother was telling me how she felt she could trace her daughter's difficulties back to the death of her husband when the child was four years old. The child said at Christmas-time: 'there will be no Father Christmas for me because I've no father', and it was then that she suddenly realized what the loss had meant. Hearing her daughter say this, she had cried her eyes out.

In this book I do not think there is anything quite so penetrating as this flash of insight of an uninstructed mother, but Miss Sylvia Anthony is, of course, attempting something quite different from an intuitive flash of understanding. She is making a scientific study of the meaning of death to the child, attempting to forge an intellectual approach to the subject, not only for herself, but also for all others who care to follow her.

Our congratulations must go to Miss Anthony straight away for her choice of subject, which will appeal to a wide circle and should ensure a healthy circulation for her book among interesting people.

The approach to the subject is through examination of home-made records of child conversations, and through a study of the ways in which children complete selected short statements, such as 'A boy went to school; when playtime came, he didn't play with the others, but stayed alone in a corner. Why?' The material supplied to us so generously by Susan Isaacs is used intensively and with effect.

In appreciating the book and in recommending its careful study, I do not at the same time suggest that the last word is spoken. In fact, I could personally have done without much of the theoretical part because it seems to me that the stages of observing and of making deductions from observations are only reached and are never really passed. One gets the impression that theory is being made to curl round data that may be incomplete or partially untrue. This is only too common in psychological books, and can easily be done by employment of certain terms such as 'repression', 'fantasy', 'unconscious', which actually are not themselves perfectly understood, so that the advance made is less than appears at first sight.

I think that all through the theoretical work clear distinction is not made between what is conscious and unconscious, in spite of an attempt on

page 6 to define these words as describing levels of mental process; and the 'unconscious' is taken to mean a part of the mind where *id* impulses exist, in the way that psycho-analytic theory may have seemed to postulate a couple of decades ago. I cannot see where the author will fit in, if data are forthcoming, the little infant's ability to *feel* someone is dead, that person having failed the child and hence become the object of hate. For instance, the little girl who had no hope of a visit from Father Christmas had done more than lose her father, the father-idea had died within her, and there is some evidence that this is something that can be experienced very early indeed, the main part being experienced without the child's awareness, except for awareness of sadness, or some form of depression.

Miss Anthony has certainly succeeded in stimulating thought on this important subject, future work on which must always owe her a debt. The value of the painstaking records given us by Susan Isaacs and Piaget is once more brought to our notice.

The following conclusions are drawn:

- (1) That the idea of death occurs readily in children's fantasy thinking.
- (2) That the idea arises as a response to suggestions of grief and fear. (It is here that I especially expect further research to lead to somewhat different conclusions.)
- (3) That fantasy about death is commonly found together with talion ideas.
- (4) That the idea (of death) develops from a stage of ignorance, through an intermediate stage concerned mainly with cultural-symbolic aspects of the idea, to a mature stage which shows objectivity and wider generalization.
- (5) That the development of conscious logic and rational science are closely connected with the development of the concept of death.
- (6) That magical thinking about death commonly originates in an identification of death with birth or pre-natal life.
- (7) That children may pass through a stage when they seek to allay anxiety aroused by association of death with the self by denying that they will die.

Here is plenty of food for thought and plenty that is probably not entirely true and therefore likely to lead to fruitful discussion.

By the way, does anyone achieve a hundred per cent. belief in his own death? What a triumph of objectivity this would be! D. W. Winnicott.

Man and Society. By Karl Mannheim. **Juvenalia.**
(Kegan Paul. 16/6.)

The problems of social existence offer so many points of attack that the human being stands among them bewildered. Economics, politics, religion, psychology, education—each has its own approach. But to plot the position and bearings of each, as on a map, calls for rare knowledge, judgment, and insight.

It is this map-like quality that strikes one first in Dr. Mannheim's book. The least that a reader can gain is some appreciation of the lie of the land. But it is no 'outline' and I believe that before coming to grips with the book itself many people will find it useful to survey the territory, with the help of the Table of Contents and the remarkable bibliography.

Man and Society is a massive and masterly work, impossible to discuss properly in a short review. Indeed, I fancy that any reviewer would write differently according to the stage he had reached in digesting, and assimilating or rejecting, the ideas which Dr. Mannheim throws up in such profusion—ideas that insist on careful consideration.

How far any particular idea is right or wrong is of secondary importance. The main thing is that Dr. Mannheim sets one thinking afresh, both analytically and constructively. Whatever your special interest may be, he gives it due weight but gently compels you to adjust yourself to a total view. In short, this book is a *tour de force* of seeing clearly and seeing whole. If your thought has centred mainly on Man, you are led to see him in the light of Society; if on the institutions of Society, you are led to see them in the light of what is known of Man.

No summary would be of much service. But to mention a few topics will indicate something of the range and importance of the book: the disorganization of society and the disorganization of personality—the crisis of culture—the problem of transforming man—dictatorship and war—freedom at the level of planning. It does not make easy reading. At first, I confess, I put this down to the author's acknowledged difficulties with the English language, to which he is not native. But now, chastened, I am obliged to admit that it would not be much easier for anyone (short of a Bertrand Russell or Aldous Huxley) to express Dr. Mannheim's meaning in simpler language than it is to express Kant's. And the reason is, I think, the same: each challenges not merely *what* we think, but *how* we think, and calls for an effort of originality on our part. No doubt many people will get along very happily without understanding Dr. Mannheim's challenge, as they do without understanding Kant's. They will secure attention for what they may say by virtue of their prowess in other fields than that of the intellect. But it will be a pity, since the issues of *Man and Society* are issues of life and death. For those who wish to take their part in the thinking that alone can save the world, this is an essential book because it opens up new approaches which cannot be ignored.

V. Ogilvie.

The amount of complicated technical facts that can be grasped by the mind of the average child has always been a mystery to me. Equally it puzzles me to know what happens to all the infant prodigies one has met. Perhaps our present-day system of secondary education partly answers the latter question. But I wander from my original intention, which was to say that *Machines*, by Brian Reed (Oxford University Press, 7/-) is an informative picture book from America which I feel sure will be welcomed most heartily by mechanically-minded youngsters. It describes very briefly the principal features of power shovels, titan cranes, pneumatic drills, and other such devices of our modern civilization. A fine lithograph of each machine, by Lewis Lupton, amplifies the bare detail of the words and appeals both to mind and eye. These are striking both in colour and conception. I recommend most warmly this admirable book, even though I myself, for reasons before mentioned, was not quite able to grasp all the facts that it contained.

From *Machines* to *Moldy Warp the Mole*, by Alison Uttley (Collins, 2/6) is a jump. Especially acrobatic is the contrast between the bold lithographs of the former and the gentle coloured pictures, by Margaret Tempest, of the Mole and his friends the little woodland people. Mrs. Uttley and Miss Tempest portray with charm and imagination, as always, what I can only describe as the tiny life of Little Grey Rabbit, Mole, Hare, and the rest. Those small humans who revel in the Little Grey Rabbit books will love to know about Mr. Mole's treasure hunt. This is an entrancing booklet.

I wish I could feel that *Ride-a-Cock-Horse*, containing a few nursery stories (Chatto and Windus, 6/-) was going to find its niche. But this kind of well-produced semi-precious picture book is so often bought by grown-ups and fits really neither into the sitting-room or the nursery schoolroom. I will not attempt criticism of Mr. Mervyn Peake as an artist; I simply think that his clever work will not go down with the nursery-rhyme-aged young. For grown-ups let me add that the picture of Little Jack Horner sprawling in an Eton suit before a Very Modern wallpaper made me laugh out loud.

The three books of fiction that I have here are disappointing. *Lost Men in the Grass*, by Alan Griff (Oxford, 4/-) is one of those now familiar stories in which adults take a potion which reduces them in stature, in this case to the size of jacket buttons. I cannot discover for what age this mixture of pseudo-science and battles with beetles has been served up. Eric Newton's black and white illustrations and the Oxford Press's pleasant binding are the best parts of this book. *The Emerald Crown*, by Violet Needham (Collins, 6/-) might almost have been written by schoolroom inmates who wished, unsuccessfully, to be mistaken for future Anthony Hopes or Hans Andersens. This story of the young lost King of Flavonia (at Eton, too), a winsome little girl, a hidden crown, faithful followers, wise old grannies, and so on, just doesn't go. Miss Needham, I

respectfully suggest, has done better than this. Anne Bullen further confuses the issue between Ancient and Modern with her illustrations. She too does not seem at ease, though I like her horses. *Buntly Brown, Probationer*, by Barbara Wilcox (Oxford 4/-) is sound in idea but less sound in execution. At this moment especially it seems desirable to encourage girls into the nursing profession, and there are one or two recent books for schoolgirls which in the guise of fiction give a very reasonable and encouraging picture of the pros and cons of hospital life. Miss Wilcox might, it seems to me, frighten off would-be probationers with her slightly formidable picture of severe sisters and suffering. It is surely also a mistake from the junior nurse's point of view to suggest that the heart of a fairy godfather may beat in the senior surgeon's breast.

Lorna Lewis

Barbar and Father Christmas, by Jean de Brunhoff. (Methuen. 8/6.)

For the last six years, the adventures of Babar have delighted the three-year-olds and upwards. Babar was only a small elephant when we first knew him; now he is a father and smokes a pipe, and, alas, he will have no more adventures for the material left by the author when he died is now exhausted. In spite of his pipe, Babar has some stirring incidents in his search for Father Christmas, whom, with the help of Duck, a dog with an excellent nose, he eventually finds on top of his snow-clad mountain. Father Christmas is very tired and out of sorts, but is much heartened after a restful visit to Babar's home in the sunshine, and because Babar was so kind to him the little elephants now always find their stockings full of presents on Christmas morning, just like all the little human children.

Good-bye, Babar—and thank you. Maud Bigge

Pompey was a Penguin, by Thomas Wyatt Bagshawe, with illustrations by Joan Kiddell-Monroe. (Oxford University Press. 4/6.)

This is the story of nine months of the life of a Gentoo penguin. To children who know only of the Adelie and Emperor Penguins pictured so faithfully in the writings of Captain Scott and his companions, it will be a pleasure to read such a charming and amusing account of another branch of the Penguin family. The story gives a delightful impression of first-hand observation so that one is not surprised to read on the cover that the author spent a year amid the Penguin rookeries of Graham's Land. The illustrations in black, white and ice-blue have breadth and movement, and are extremely attractive.

J. W.

Franz Schubert and his Merry Friends, by Opal Wheeler and Sybil Deucher, illustrated by Mary Greenwalt. (Faber & Faber. 6/-.)

The authors had an excellent idea in writing this biographical story of Schubert and his Merry Friends (the fourth of a series of musical biographies). Children from 9-12 will enjoy it, particularly if it is read to them by a pianist who can play for them

the printed selections of Schubert's works as they occur in the text. The beautiful melody of the Unfinished Symphony, for instance, will always be remembered by a child if it is connected with the story of Schubert throwing down the script of his music to join his merry friends at a picnic, and then forgetting to finish it. There is a certain flatness in the writing which gives almost the impression of a translation from German, and the story ends abruptly, leaving the reader in the air.

Red Letter Holiday, by Virginia Pye, with drawings by Gwen Raverat. (Faber & Faber. 7/6)

This is an exciting and lively story for nine-year-olds and older. The Price family (mother, two boys and a girl, with their friend Johanna) go for their summer holiday to a cottage by the sea in Cornwall. Mrs. Price has concussion as the result of an accident and disappears fairly early in the story and, through a misunderstanding, the children are left on their own in the cottage. One regrets the disappearance of Mrs. Price; she was such a sensible and adventurous mother. But the children manage very well without her, although they don't always find time to wash their teeth. Among other adventures, some dramatic and some comical, they discover the skeleton of a real "Plesiochelys", which, to their great pride, is set up in the Natural History Museum. They are delightfully natural children, and the story goes with a swing. It is a spontaneous piece of work. Mrs. Raverat's drawings have the quality that one expects to find in them.

Adventures of Sam Pig, by Alison Uttley. (Faber & Faber. 6/-.)

The many five- to seven-year-olds who called *The Four Pigs and Brock the Badger* "my best book" last Christmas will be charmed to hear more of the household. Sam is as brave, pig-headed and warm-hearted as ever, the country smells and looks as entrancing, Brock is as wise and dependable, and there are two new characters, a dragon and a leprechaun. And the fox, thank heavens, is repeatedly foiled by Sam.

Ameliaranne Keeps School, by Constance Heward. (Harrap. 2/6.)

Ameliaranne keeps school just as sensibly and nicely as she does everything else. Connoisseurs will find this book up to scratch. And the fives and upwards who don't know Ameliaranne might as well begin here.

The House in the Mountains, by Avril Demuth. (Hamish Hamilton. 7/6.)

These are the adventures of four very nice and ordinary children who lived in a Swiss village, but the Baron and his housekeeper from the end of the village were a wizard and a witch; so the adventures were not ordinary. They were all mixed up with magic and were unravelled partly by sturdy character and partly by the good offices of a talking dog and bear. It is all very well told and goes with a swing, and children may enjoy its close-woven facts and fantasy. But I am not sure they wouldn't welcome,

as I should, a straightforward modern story from the same pen.

NOTES : By MARY TREADGOLD

The Flahertys of Aran, by Agnes C. Lehman.
(Harrap. 5/-.)

Vivid, vigorous portrayal of enchanting impoverished peasant family away over on Aran. Father and Mother Flaherty and the children have a green thumb for living, and there is adventure round every tumbledown corner. Book is episodic—scenes at Galway Cattle Fair, sister Mary's wedding, at donkey-races, in Christmas week—but coherence is given by children's unending search for the Crock of Gold to pay for cure of small Katie's lameness. Author has inside knowledge of West Ireland and a feeling for an aristocratic quality of living entirely apart from the accessories of wealth and position. There is gaiety, courtesy and great love and kindness in the Flaherty's house. Dialogue is rich and flavoursome with idiom. A grand book for 7 and over.

An Ear for Uncle Emil, by E. R. Gaggin.
(Harrap. 6/-.)

Worth every penny if only for entrancing illustrations by Kate Seredy. Swiss peasant setting with adorable little villages, white goats, and apple blossom flowering to strains of Resi Witt's accordeon. Resi is surely the busiest child in Appenzeller land, what with leading accordeon band, seeing Grandmother takes her coughdrops, patching up her herdsman doll, Uncle Emil, with Peter Kirchli's goat, Edelweiss, forever butting in, and so on. A fast-paced hilarious story with crisp dialogue, crowded kaleidoscopic scenes, charming characters, lovely pictorial descriptions, and informed with blessed sense of much-needed sunshine and fun. More power to Harrap, who can give us such gaiety in these dog-days! 'There's nobody so lucky as the Witts on Middle Meadow', cries Resi—no, and there's nobody so lucky as the 6-9-year-olds who get this book for Christmas.

Findings are Keepings, by Kathleen Wallace.
(Heinemann. 5/-.)

The Hydies evacuate to Norfolk in a caravan and pick up some curious additions to their party *en route*. No particular plot but delightful pettering through old towns and a quiet countryside with stray adventures and odd happenings. A book for the bombed child (and adult) or for the child (and adult) over-preoccupied with war because while set against a background of those early months it is a reassertion of tried and important values, and there is real beauty and serenity in its story. First-class story-telling, real literary sensibility and an acute perception of character. I emerged feeling goodness and friendship really were still flourishing, and that there were things—like the flight of wild geese or old hidden treasure or memories of ancient adventures—still to think about besides war. One of the best children's books I have ever read.

The Three Finger-Prints, by Gladys Mitchell.
(Heinemann. 7/6.)

Who was the dark-skinned Mr. Mocca? Why

did the Indian change his turban? What happened to the crocodile in the quarry? A not-so-credible spy story but with some really first-class detective snooping and tough, stimulating reasoning by the three children concerned. Good, commonsense approach and method in their working. Unlike many attempts at children's detective novel, no 'talking down'—no wishy-washy type of crime and no slovenly easy solution. Danger of over-complication only just avoided, so suitable for child over 12.

Whimsical Wendy, by Robin England.
(Harrap. 2/9.)

Children unlikely to shudder, as I did, at general whimsiness of title, Wendy, Wendy's whimsical Aunt and whimsical, roguish Uncle. (I took against Uncle terribly.) Whole book, in fact, too kittenish for my cynical adult taste—but small girls of 5-7 will eat it up. Minute descriptions of Wendy's house, breakfast, contents of suitcase, etc., together with leisurely plotless amble through Wendy's Devon holiday and accounts of sheer breakfast-to-bedtime living will send it shooting, inexplicably to the adult, direct to winning post. No literary merits, not a bit what we think children ought to like—but I put my shirt on *Whimsical Wendy's* success, and I have great respect for little book.

The Bargain Pony, by A. M. Easton.
(Heinemann. 6/-.)

When Nancy Marshall buys perfect misery of a pony she believes she has found a bargain. Pony turns out quite unmanageable but is ultimately tamed and becomes crack polo pony and instrumental in scotching Terrorist plot. Madly pukka-sahib Indian setting with no sympathy (I rather fancy) for the Indian case. Somewhat uninspired pony story but suited to child of 9-11 besotted with horses to point of losing discrimination in literature of this genre.

The following books reached us too late for review but should be noted :

For 5-8 year olds. FROM WARNE : *Through the Magic Mirror*, by Kathleen Scarr, illustrated by Molly Brett. 3/6. (Fairy story of Tantivy Tinker, the elf, Silverwings and Griselda, the Goose Girl.) *Squeaker's Pyjamas*, by Joy Trotman and Maben, illustrated by Maben. 2/6. (A story of a little pig and his pyjamas.) FROM METHUEN : *Tales of Betsy-May*, a new Enid Blyton, illustrated by J. Gale Thomas. 4/-.

For girls. FROM WARNE : *Patch and a Pawn*, by Elsie Jeanette Oxenham. 5/- (By the same author, *Sylvia of Sarn*, *Girls of Gwynfa*.) *The Coming of Janet*, by Dorothy Burdett. 3/6. (A story of Rhodesia.) FROM NELSON : *The Warringtons in Wartime*, by Ethel Talbot. 3/-. (A war story, 1914-1918.) *Pippa at Home*, by E. E. Ohlson. 4/-. (About a girl who has just left school.)

For boys. FROM WARNE : *The Syren of Silverna*, by Basil C. De Guerin. 5/-. (Adventures in the Channel Islands.) *Knight of the Knuckles*, by Hylton Cleaver. 3/6. (Adventures at a Boxers' Training Camp.) *The Flying Ranger*, by Alan Western. 6/-. (British Columbia, Forest Rangers, adventures in the air.) FROM NELSON : *The Man from Outside*,

by L. C. Douthwaite. 3/- (Royal Canadian Mounted Police and Red Indians.) *Let's Go Fishing*, by L. Vernon Bates. 4/- (Presenting the basic *Cornwall*, by Percy Woodcock. 3/- (Adventures on a yawl-rigged yacht ; search for kidnappers, etc.)

For boys and girls. FROM WARNE : *Rosemary, Air Pilot*, by Elizabeth Rogers. 6/- (A story of flying adventures in China.) FROM NELSON : *Explorers Afloat*, by Garry Hogg. 5/- (A sequel to principles of good style in fishing.) *Kidnapped in Explorers Awheel* and *Explorers on the Wall*.) *Island Farm*, by Hilda Brerely. 3/- (Adventures at an East Coast farmhouse, with foreign spy element.)

New Education Fellowship News

Professor CLAPARÈDE

We deeply regret to learn of the death of Professor Edouard Claparède of Geneva. His services to education and psychology were of the very highest order. Both through his writings and teaching and through the prominent part he played in making the Institut J. J. Rousseau a great centre of pedagogical study, he made an outstanding contribution to the advance of education. With a full sense of gratitude for his life and work, we offer our sympathy to his widow and his colleagues.

INDIA

Mr. John Sargent, formerly Director of Education for Essex, is now Educational Commissioner to the Government of India and has presided at a conference held by the Punjab Section of the N.E.F. Working with Mr. Sargent is Dr. Sen, Secretary of the Bengal Section of the Fellowship. The Punjab Section sends interesting reports of work done by N.E.F. groups in the Himalayas and at Lyallpur, the capital of an important Canal Colony District.

AMERICA

The Progressive Education Association (the United States Section of the N.E.F.) will hold a conference in New York in November, on the theme 'Education for National Defence'. The keynote of the conference is given in the following extract from the preliminary notice : 'The first line of defence of the democratic way of life is the good life of all its people. As long as many people are ill fed, ill clothed, and poorly sheltered, democracy is vulnerable. As long as people are not united in a democratic spirit through sharing and participating in a great common effort, democracy is weak.'

AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND, TASMANIA

The N.E.F. Trustees in New Zealand have given £50 to the Christchurch Technical College to enable it to run a nursery school for one term as part of the training of senior girls. It is hoped that the experiment will become a permanent part of the College. The Auckland N.E.F. group have arranged for some of the reproductions from the Carnegie art

And from the Oxford University Press *Quetzal Quest*, by V. W. v. Hagen and Quail Hawkins, illustrated by Antonio Sotomayor (which, with *Pompey was a Penguin*, reviewed above, is among the most distinguished children's books we have seen this year.)

Readers should not miss the "Out With Romany" Calendar, edited by Romany of the B.B.C., and published by the University of London Press, Ltd. (3/6), in which Romany describes the simple joys of open-air life, which we may forget in the strain and stress through which we are passing. The excellent photographs illustrating this calendar were taken by Eric J. Hosking, F.R.P.S., M.B.O.U.

**International Headquarters,
29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1**

collection to be circulated to primary schools and the N.E.F. Trustees are supporting the venture with funds. Wellington is active with discussion groups—one composed of infants' school mistresses being particularly active.

The Hobart Group has been running a series of discussions on 'Education in War Time'. The Minister of Education, Mr. E. J. Ogilvie, took part in one of these discussions.

Queensland Section has arranged a series of broadcasts on education with an excellent panel of speakers.

ENGLAND

Clothes Old and New

are urgently needed for the children (and adults) evacuated to country areas. The Bridgwater Clothing Committee has asked us to help with the children in Bridgwater. We shall be grateful if members can send us parcels of clothing which they may be able to collect from their schools or from friends. Perhaps some could organize knitting parties. We have already started with six small vests ! Gifts should be sent to Miss Clare Soper, 101 Wembdon Road, Bridgwater, Somerset.

Storage of Furniture

A Member with a large house in London would like to hear from anyone wishing to store furniture.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

The November number of *The Journal of Education*, in its Notes and Comments on current events, deals among other matters with the evacuation of young children from dangerous areas, the school curriculum and the war, and the religious controversy in the schools. There are interesting articles on the future of the public schools by Sir Cyril Norwood and other distinguished headmasters, past and present, on history teaching, by Professor F. Clarke, and on physical education by Dr. L. P. Jacks. Empire and Foreign News deals with France, Eire and Oversea Journals. There are reviews of recently-published books, including review articles on 'The Cinema in Education' and 'Worship in School'.

Directory of Schools—Great Britain

DARTINGTON HALL TOTNES DEVON

Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

A co-educational boarding school for boys and girls from 2-18 in the centre of a 2,000 acre estate engaged in the scientific development of rural industries. The school gives to Arts and Crafts, Dance, Drama and Music the special attention customary in progressive schools, and combines a modern outlook which is non-sectarian and international with a free and informal atmosphere. It aims to establish the high intellectual and academic standards of the best traditional schools, and the staff therefore includes a proportion of highly qualified scholars actively engaged in research as well as in teaching. With the help of an endowment fund it is planning and erecting up-to-date buildings and equipment.

Fees : £120-£160 per annum.

A limited number of scholarships are available, and further information about these may be obtained from the Headmaster.

DARTINGTON HALL TOTNES DEVON

Headmaster : W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc.

TEACHER TRAINING DEPARTMENT

A department for the training of teachers for Nursery School, Kindergarten, and Junior School work, under the direction of Miss Margaret Isherwood, M.A. Camb., N.F.U., formerly lecturer at the Froebel Education Institute. Preparation for the Teachers' Certificate of the National Froebel Union. Special attention to the needs and interests of 'free lance' students, particularly to those coming from abroad or those requiring short courses of study not leading to an examination. Excellent opportunity for contact with children of all ages and classes. Facilities of the Dartington Hall Estate available for students wishing to get some acquaintance with rural life and industries.

Further information on application.

ABBOTSHOLME SCHOOL, DERBYSHIRE

(Recognized by the Board of Education)

<i>Founded</i>	ORIGINATED THE	<i>Reorganized</i>
1889	NEW SCHOOL	1927
	MOVEMENT	

A PUBLIC SCHOOL
for boys of 11 to 18, preparing
for entrance to the Universities

A JUNIOR SCHOOL
attached, for boys of 7 to 12
not preparing for 'Common
Entrance'

BASING all education on a sense of reality and on the spirit of loyal co-operation, this school claims to train boys for present-day life through keenness, health, self-discipline, and understanding, using such modern methods as are of proven value. The estate and country surroundings are ideal for the purpose, and visits are invited.

Chairman of Council : Prof. J. J. Findlay,
M.A., Ph.D.

Headmaster : Colin H. C. Sharp, M.A. (Ox.)

FRENSHAM HEIGHTS FARNHAM SURREY

Headmaster : PAUL ROBERTS, M.A.

Frensham Heights is a co-educational school containing at present 105 boarders and 45 day pupils equally divided as to sex and equally distributed in age from 6 to 18.

The school stands in a high position in 170 acres of ground and is exceptionally fortunate in its accommodation and equipment.

Fees : 144 guineas per annum inclusive

Four scholarships are offered annually

For particulars apply Headmaster

Directory of Schools—continued

MONKTON WYLD SCHOOL
NEAR CHARMOUTH DORSET

Principals : Eleanor Urban, M.A. ; Humphrey Swingler, M.A.

**A new progressive School
opening September 23rd for
boys & girls from 3-18 years.**

PROSPECTUS FROM THE SECRETARY

THE GARDEN SCHOOL

Wycombe Court, Lane End

Nr. High Wycombe

Girls' boarding school (4-18). Estate of 61 acres in Chiltern Hills. Balanced education with scope for initiative and creative self-expression. Large staff of graduates, besides specialists in elocution, art, crafts, eurhythmics and physical exercises. Open-air swimming pool.

FEES : £120-£150 per annum according to age on admission.

A Home School for little boys and girls from two to ten years.

**LITTLE FELCOURT
SCHOOL,
EAST GRINSTEAD, N.E.**

is founded on the Montessori idea of a 'Children's House'. The school aims to create the happy free atmosphere of a real home.

Particulars from the Principal.

**MALTMAN'S GREEN
GERRARDS CROSS BUCKS**

*Boarding School for Girls from
nine to nineteen years of age*

Headmistress : MISS CHAMBERS

HURTWOOD SCHOOL

Peaslake

Nr. Guildford

Co-educational from 3 years.

Modern building equipped for children in beautiful and healthy surroundings. The school aims at a high standard of scholarship in addition to health and happiness.

It wishes to attain a constructively progressive outlook without reaction, and believes that this can be done where tolerance is based upon sound knowledge and understanding.

Full particulars from the Principal :
JANET JEWSON, M.A., N.F.U.

Directory of Schools—continued

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL, LETCHWORTH

Those who would like to know about the educational way of life which is being developed by this community of some 240 boys and girls and 40 adults are invited to communicate with the Principals.

A NEW SCHOOL IN LUNESDALE Wennington Hall, via Lancaster

Massive building in quiet area, undisturbed by sirens. Boys and Girls; Junior and Senior depts. A school community, staffed largely by married people, incorporating domestic workers in equality and common standard of living. Hardy, practical education, aiming at both sensitiveness and toughness, providing immediate creative enjoyment and a preparation for the tasks of the post-war world. Experienced graduate teachers. Advisory council under chairmanship of Prof. John Macmurray. Fees: £90-£100 a year, with reductions in certain cases.

Headmaster: KENNETH C. BARNES, B.Sc.
(Tel.: Hornby 266.)

KESWICK SCHOOL, DERWENTWATER Headmaster: H. W. Howe, M.A.

Keswick school provides a sanely progressive education founded on religious principles and carried out in the ideal surroundings of the Lake District. The environment is peculiarly varied. Differences of social class, sex, and nationality, of the town and country, of home life and the boarding school, all contribute their influence in building up the community and through the community the individual. Tradition and experiment blend in a well balanced curriculum. Emphasis is laid on Music, Art, Handicraft and Physical Training, without losing sight of a high scholastic standard. New Boarding House for boys and girls of Preparatory school age now open.

Fees £82 a year subject to reduction by Bursari
All further particulars from the Headmaster

KING ALFRED SCHOOL NOW AT Flint Hall Farm, Royston, Herts.

CO-EDUCATIONAL DAY SCHOOL. AGES 3 TO 18
Open-air conditions. Free discipline.
Encouragement of individual initiative in
intellectual and manual activities.

Joint Heads:

H. DE P. BIRKETT, B.Sc.
V. A. HYETT, Hons.Sch.Mod.Hist.Oxford.

Wychwood School, Oxford RECOGNIZED BY BOARD OF EDUCATION

Maximum of 80 girls (half day pupils) aged 8 to 18. Small classes, large graduate staff. Education in the widest sense under unusually happy and free conditions. Exceptionally good health record. Elder girls not taking College entrance can either specialize in Drawing, Design, Languages, Music, or Handicraft, or enter Wychlea Domestic Science House. Playing fields, bathing pool.

Principals: Miss MARGARET L. LEE, M.A. (Oxon.)
Mrs. ELIZABETH G. THOMPSON, Hons.
Sch. Eng. Language & Literature (Oxon.)

CORNWALL, CARBIS BAY

ROCKLANDS SCHOOL has evacuated to THE HEADLANDS, Carbis Bay, where it has taken over fine premises 300 feet up overlooking Carbis Bay sands. Co-educational, 40 boarders, ages 4 to 17. Family atmosphere. Unique health record. Modern dietary, meat and vegetarian. Individual, active methods with high academic standards.

Headmaster:

W. T. R. RAWSON (B.A. Hons. Camb.)

PARC WERN SCHOOL

(formerly SWANSEA) evacuated to:

**DOLAUCOTHY HALL, PUMPSAINT,
nr. LLANWRDA, CARMARTHENSHIRE**

Day and Boarding School for Boys and Girls from 3 to 12 years.

A community of children and staff engaged in every kind of play, creative activities and formal work—where parents are closely associated with the school's control and interests.

Subsidiary Courses of Training are offered to Domestic Science Students, Nursery School Workers, School Matrons, and Teachers.

The school is recognized by the Board of Education.

THE BELTANE SCHOOL

now at Shaw Hill, Melksham, Wilts. Boys and girls from five to eighteen years. Economical running to meet war-time needs.

Directory of Schools—continued

LONG DENE SCHOOL

THE MANOR HOUSE STOKE PARK
BUCKINGHAMSHIRE

Co-educational, from 4–19 years.

A safe, and perfect, place for children. There is a lake in the grounds, and facilities include pottery, weaving, printing and a sound-film projector. Food reform diet. Keenly alive specialist staff.

Headmaster:

JOHN GUINNESS, B.A. (Oxon.)

FROEBEL PREPARATORY SCHOOL

Little Gaddesden, Herts.

Sound modern education for boys and girls aged 5–12 years. Inclusive boarding fee.

Headmistress:

Miss O. B. PRIESTMAN, B.A., N.F.U.

CRANEMOOR COLLEGE CHRISTCHURCH HAMPSHIRE

BOYS 14–19 YEARS

Fifteen to twenty boys are in residence under very healthy conditions, preparing for University or Professions. Boys needing special understanding and individual coaching do very well at Cranemoor.

MOIRA HOUSE (of EASTBOURNE) now at FERRY HOTEL, WINDERMERE

Recognized by the Board of Education.

Boarding School for Girls from 6 to 18 ; small brothers (aged 6 to 9) also received.

Principals: Miss GERTRUDE A. INGHAM.
Miss MONA SWANN.

Vice-Principal: Miss EDITH TIZZARD, B.A., Hons. Lond.

BEDALES SCHOOL

PETERSFIELD HANTS (*Founded 1893*)

A Co-educational Boarding School for boys and girls from 11–19. Separate Junior School for those from 5–11. Inspected by the Board of Education. Country estate of 150 acres. Home Farm. Education is on modern lines and aims at securing the fullest individual development in, and through, the community. Scholarships offered, including some for Arts and Music.

Headmaster: **F. A. MEIER, M.A.(Camb.)**

OAKLEA

BUCKHURST HILL, ESSEX.

Recognized by Board of Education.

Removed for duration of war to

NESS STRANGE, near SHREWSBURY.

90 Boarders taken in pleasant country house in exceptionally safe area. Beautiful countryside.

Principal: BEATRICE GARDNER.

MOORLAND SCHOOL

THE BIGGINS, KIRKBY LONSDALE

Home School for boys and girls 3 to 12 years, where the children lead a happy, healthy life amidst beautiful surroundings.

Sound education on natural lines, giving scope for initiative and creative work, aiming at the development of balanced personalities.

Principals: D. EVELYN KING, L.L.A.; AGNES E. CRANE.

BEVERLEY NURSERY SCHOOL

Now at ABERFOYLE,
Perthshire, Scotland

A progressive Nursery School for children 2 to 7 years in conjunction with which is a home for small children which offers them a happy family life in safe surroundings with plenty of space.

ST. MARY'S SCHOOL

WEDDERBURN ROAD, HAMPSTEAD,

now at

Yarkhill Court, Ledbury, nr. Hereford

(*Tel.:* Tarrington 233).

Boys and Girls, 4–16.
Modern dietary.

Emphasis on languages.

Mrs. E. PAUL, Ph.D.

HIGH MARCH, BEACONSFIELD, BUCKS.
A Progressive Preparatory School for girls to 14, and little boys. The School aims at giving a sound education with special emphasis on art, music, and creative activities. *Headmistress:* Miss Warr.

NEW HERRLINGEN SCHOOL (recognized by the Board of Education) welcomes children to grow up in a home-like atmosphere. *Principal,* Anna Essinger, M.A., at Trench Hall, Wem, nr. Shrewsbury.

Directory of Schools—continued

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S, Great Missenden, Bucks. Preparatory School for Girls and Small Boys on modern lines. Individual attention. Thorough musical training. Recognized by Board of Education. Entire charge taken if parents abroad. Froebel and Graduate Staff. Apply Principal.

HALSTEAD PLACE, Littleton Panell, nr. Devizes, Wiltshire. Preparatory School for Girls. Recognized by the Board of Education. Ages 6-14 years. 18 acres. 300 feet high. Station, Lavington. (Paddington 2 hours.)

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S SCHOOL, Belsize Lane, Hampstead with GLENDOWER SCHOOL, now at SYDENHAM HOUSE, LEWDOWN, DEVON. Beautiful house and grounds. Upper and Middle School for Girls, Lower School. Boys and girls 4-10. Boarding and Day.

PINEHURST, Goudhurst. On the beautiful Kentish Weald. Progressive School. Co-educational 3-12 years. Sound education. Crafts. Riding. Food Reform Diet. Sun and Air Bathing. Excellent health record. Miss M. B. Reid, Principal.

GREAT SARRATT HALL, SARRATT, HERTS. Nursery and Preparatory Boarding School for children from birth to 10 years. Parents and school work in close co-operation. Group limited to twelve children. Qualified resident and visiting teachers. Principal: Gladys Raymond, S.R.N.

CHINTHURST SCHOOL, Tadworth, Surrey. Preparatory School for Boys. Pre-Preparatory house for Girls and Boys. Friendly atmosphere. Riding. Swimming Pool. Children from other countries are welcome. Holiday pupils taken. Apply Principals.

CHILDREN'S FARM, ROMANSLEIGH, NORTH DEVON. A country home and school for children under 14. Qualified staff. Animal care, riding, crafts. Children welcomed for the holidays. Mr. and Mrs. Volkmer, B.A.

NURSERY HOME. Berks., country. Ideal home life for young children in peaceful atmosphere with skilled care. Large garden, orchard. Dancing, riding available. Fees from 3 guineas weekly. Miss Douglas, Lane End, Beenham.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL, Amberley, nr. Stroud, Glos. An attempt is made to keep the school in touch with real everyday things. Principal, Mary Macgregor, B.A. (Lond.), Cambridge Teacher's Diploma.

CHILDREN'S HOUSE for 12 girls under 15, attached Llandaff School, Cambridge. Progressive Preparatory. High standard without pressure or competition. Individual attention. Musical training, handwork, games. Moderate fees.—Miss Tilley, M.A.

STANWAY SCHOOL, DORKING. Home and Day co-educational Preparatory School to 14 years. Nursery Class. Entire charge taken. Specially designed building on high ground. Education as an atmosphere, a discipline, and a life.

Edgewood, Greenwich, Connecticut. A Boarding and Day School for Boys and Girls from Kindergarten to College. Twenty-acre campus, athletic field, skating, ski-ing, tennis and all outdoor sports. Teachers' Training Course. Illustrated Catalogue describes activities and progressive aim. E. E. LANGLEY, Principal, 201 Rockridge.

Directory of Training Centres

SWANLEY HORTICULTURAL COLLEGE, Kent, is now carrying on its work at the Midland Agricultural College, Sutton Bonington, Loughborough, Leicestershire. For particulars of courses in Horticulture, Dairying and Poultry Husbandry apply for prospectus to the Principal.

MISS DOROTHY MATTHEWS, B.A., 32 Primrose Hill Road, London, N.W.3, PRI 5686. Correspondence and visit lessons in Writing, Speaking and Poetry. Help through the creative expression work in teaching; in personal relationship, health, and other problems; in artistic development—singing in tune, etc.

POSTS VACANT AND WANTED, etc.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS MAN, aged 40, desires teaching post. Offers English, French, Classics, History, Elementary Maths. No previous teaching experience, but considerable experience of dramatic work in schools. Wife (B.A. London) could give part-time help if required. Reply R. Williams, 2 Essingham Road, St. Andrews, Bristol.

ASSISTANCE required January in small co-educational home school, children 3-12. Teacher to help with older children, and house-keeper-matron for 8 boarders. Suitable home for man and wife with own children. Progressive views; adequate salary. Lois Brown, The Lodge, Thornton-le-Dale, Yorks.

THE NEW ERA

LATIMER HOUSE, CHURCH STREET, CHISWICK

Telephone and Telegrams: CHISWICK 6011

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